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PEACE HANDBOOKS

VOL. I

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

PART I

1920

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# PEACE HANDBOOKS

Issued by the Historical Section  
of the Foreign Office

VOL. I

## AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

PART I

1. HISTORY OF AUSTRIA  
HISTORY OF HUNGARY  
FOREIGN POLICY OF AUSTRIA-  
HUNGARY
2. BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA
3. SLOVAKIA
4. AUSTRIAN SILESIA
5. BUKOVINA
6. TRANSYLVANIA AND THE BANAT
7. HUNGARIAN RUTHENIA

LONDON :  
H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE

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1920

ROYAL CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICE

Report of the Mounted Police  
of the Western Division

Vol. 1

ALBERTA-HENRY

Part 1

THE ROYAL CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICE

REPORT OF THE MOUNTED POLICE

OF THE WESTERN DIVISION

DEPARTMENT

OF THE MOUNTED POLICE

ALBERTA-HENRY

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## Editorial Note.

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IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly*

*Director of the Historical Section.*

*January 1920.*



A U S T R I A  
—  
H U N G A R Y  
—  
FOREIGN POLICY OF  
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

LONDON :  
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1920



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# AUSTRIA

## I. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

SHOWING THE HISTORICAL GROWTH OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

- 768–814. The ‘ Ostmark ’ of Charlemagne : a defence against the Barbarians.
- c. 950. The Mark reconstituted by Otto I as barrier against Magyars.
1156. Under Frederick Barbarossa it becomes a Duchy ; extends from Passau to River Leitha, and includes the region between Inn and Enns.
1192. The Austrian Duke inherits Styria and Upper Austria.
1229. Carniola acquired from Bishop of Freising.
1246. On extinction of Babenberg line of Dukes, Austria reverts to Emperor Frederick II.
1253. Ottokar, King of Bohemia, succeeds to the Duchy and acquires Carinthia.
1278. On death of Ottokar, Duchies of Austria and Styria pass to Rudolph of Habsburg.
1363. Tirol incorporated with Austria by family arrangement.
1382. Trieste included at its own request.
- c. 1450. The elective Imperial Crown virtually becomes hereditary in the House of Habsburg.
- 1440–93. Emperor Frederick III. Invasions of Ottoman Turks.
1438. Albert II. Hungary and Bohemia temporarily united with Austria.
1453. Austria becomes an Archduchy.
- 1493–1519. Maximilian I consolidates his western dominions—Austria, Styria, Carniola, Carinthia, Tirol, Fiume, and Trieste—and by inheritance acquires Gorizia and Gradisca.
1526. The Archduke Ferdinand claims the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary in right of his wife, on death of King Louis.
- The Estates of Hungary and Bohemia acknowledge the claim, but reserve their independence.
1556. Ferdinand succeeds Charles V. Union of Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia with the Imperial Crown.
1619. Accession of Ferdinand II, leader of the Catholic Reaction. Revolt of Bohemia.

1626. Bohemia acknowledges legislative and administrative authority of Austria and becomes part of the hereditary dominions.
- 1657–1705. Attempt of Leopold I to centralize all administration successfully resisted by Hungary, which secures religious freedom (Diet of Edensberg).
1699. Peace of Carlowitz: Austria regains the lost lands of Croatia, Slavonia, Hungary, and Transylvania.
- 1711–40. Charles VI. Prince Eugene completes work of reconquest from the Turk and recovers the Banat of Temesvár with Belgrade and north of Serbia.
1718. Treaty of Passarowitz.
1724. Pragmatic Sanction proclaimed at Vienna.
1772. At partition of Poland, Austria obtains Galicia, which becomes a Crown land under title of Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria.
1777. Under pressure Turkey cedes Bukovina to Austria.
1805. The Emperor Francis II takes the title of Emperor of Austria, and resigns that of Holy Roman Emperor (1806).
1815. At Treaty of Vienna, Austria surrenders the Netherlands and obtains territories of the Venetian Republic.
1846. By arrangement with Russia and Prussia, Cracow (held by Austria 1795–1809) is recovered.
1860. (Oct. 20) The October Charter or Diploma granted.
1861. (Feb.) The 'Patent' re-establishes centralized administration.
1866. Austria loses Venice, but retains Istria and Dalmatia, together with Ragusa.
1867. The Ausgleich or Compromise.
1878. Treaty of Berlin makes Austria administrator of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
1908. Austria annexes these territories without reference to the Signatory Powers.

### PRIME MINISTERS FROM 1867

1867. Count Taaffe.
- 1867 (December). Prince Carl Wilhelm Auersperg.
1868. Count Taaffe.
1870. Count Hasner.
- 1870 (April). Count Potocki.
1871. Count Hohenwart.
- 1871 (November). Prince Adolf Auersperg.
1879. Count Taaffe.
1893. Prince Alfred Windischgrätz.
1895. Count Kielmansegg.

1895 (October). Count Badeni.  
 1897. Baron Gautsch.  
 1898. Count Thun.  
 1899. Count Clary.  
 1899 (December). Count von Wittek.  
 1900. Dr. Ernst von Körber.  
 1905. Baron Gautsch.  
 1906. Prince Hohenlohe.  
 1906 (May). Baron von Beck.  
 1908. Baron von Bienerth.  
 1911. Baron Gautsch.  
 1911. Count Stuergh.  
 1916. Dr. Ernst von Körber.

## GENERAL SKETCH. (a) AUSTRIAN DOMESTIC HISTORY BEFORE 1867

### (1) THE PRAGMATIC SANCTION

THE Pragmatic Sanction (first published in 1712-13 and promulgated as law in 1724) may be taken as the starting-point of any sketch of Austrian domestic history. It was the outcome of the fact that the Emperor Charles VI had no son and of the belief that the Habsburg territories could not be held together in the hands of a woman unless the dynastic link were strengthened by what may be reckoned in effect as a first step towards federalism. In its first article it affirmed that Austria was an indivisible unit; and this was ultimately of more consequence than the two more famous articles of succession which, in default of male heirs, settled the Austrian inheritance upon the Emperor's daughter, Maria Theresa. Charles VI spent his best energies in getting the Pragmatic Sanction accepted by the different Estates of Austria and by the States of Europe. The acceptance proved of value in the first case, but not in the second. Maria Theresa was recognized by her subjects, but she had to fight with France and Prussia to keep them. With her reign, therefore, Austria came to self-consciousness, at any rate in a fuller sense than when it opposed the Turks as the champion of Christendom;<sup>1</sup> and her domestic policy

<sup>1</sup> The first use of the term 'Austrian Monarchy' to designate the collection of Habsburg estates occurs in connexion with the

responded to the new conditions by increasing centralization. The centripetal process began in 1749 with the absorption of the Austrian and Bohemian Chanceries into a directory of the Interior, or, as it was subsequently called, the United Chancery of the Imperial and Royal Court. A Council of State to supervise the general administrative policy of the Cis-Leithan provinces followed in 1760. Local administration, which had furnished examples both of mediaeval feudalism and advanced democracy, was co-ordinated by the establishment of a body of local magistrates. The substitution of the State for the clergy as the educational authority, the establishment of primary schools, the removal of feudal burdens, the introduction of conscription and of a uniform fiscal system, from which Hungary was excluded, were all steps in the same direction.

## (2) JOSEPHISM

Joseph II (1780-90) followed his mother's policy, but in a doctrinaire spirit. He was, least of all men, fitted to govern the Habsburg territories, for his idol was symmetry, and symmetry was impossible in his dominions. 'Josephism', implying ubiquitous state control in place of local autonomy and ecclesiastical privilege, was illustrated in the compulsory use of the German language for official purposes in Hungary and Bohemia and in a uniform system of taxation. Calculated to alienate many classes of his subjects, this policy of centralization was abandoned by his brother and successor, Leopold II, but not before it had sown the seed of the Czech and Magyar national movements.

## (3) FRANCIS II

The reign of Francis II (1792-1835) is notable for his adoption in 1805, when the Holy Roman Empire was finally disappearing, of the title of Emperor

Pragmatic Sanction. Eisenmann, Louis, *Le Compromis austro-hongrois*, p. 21; H. I. Bidermann, *Gesch. d. österreichischen Gesamt-Staats-Idee*, ii. 257.



of Austria. Modern Austria, therefore, dates technically from the Pragmatic Patent of this year. The Emperor held to his new title when Europe was reconstituted in 1815, and entered the Germanic Confederation as its President. The decision to maintain his interest in Germany, and to perpetuate the Imperial traditions of his House, was momentous. In order to obtain a preponderant weight in the counsels of the Confederation, it became important that he should increase by every means the German element in his dominions. The effect of this was to lead the Austrian Government to try to Germanize the Austrian Slavs, and to divert it from the pursuit of a purely Austrian policy.

The Emperor, both from experience and education, was a kindly but uncompromising despot; and Metternich, the Imperial Chancellor, stood in his day for the personification of an absolutist minister. The Austrian Constitution consisted in an omnipotent State Conference, which contained two archdukes, and the two Chancellors, Metternich and Kolowrat, the one responsible for foreign and the other for domestic affairs. Beneath them there lay a bureaucracy and Provincial Estates, which the Emperor dismissed like naughty children if they disclosed a will of their own. Against this system, and the suppression of civil and religious liberty which it involved, the Revolution of 1848 was a fierce protest. Metternich fell almost without a struggle, and the Emperor then granted the liberties he dared not refuse. A Diet from the non-Hungarian territories of the Empire was eventually assembled at Vienna to decide upon a Constitution. There were three possible solutions of the constitutional problem in Austria—centralization, federalism, and dualism. The Diet worked out a scheme on the federal principle. The Government had its reasons for preferring a centralized system. The German Constitution happened to be at the moment in the melting-pot, for the Frankfurt Parliament had begun to sit. Federalism in Austria would logically have led to the exclusion of the Austrian provinces from the Germanic Confederation. While

the Diet debated, the Imperial Generals retrieved the situation for their master. Felix Schwarzenberg, a minister of cool calculation and iron resolve, was placed in power. The Emperor Ferdinand resigned in favour of his nephew, Francis Joseph. The Assembly was dissolved. A new Constitution, granted by Imperial decree on March 4, 1849, proclaimed the Austrian Empire indivisible, established the theoretical equality of the various provinces, and reduced their Diets to the level of local councils. The grant of freedom of the press and of religious belief thinly veiled the resumption of autocratic power by the Emperor. On January 1, 1852, the emasculated Constitution was withdrawn without further pretence.

The simultaneous revolutionary movement in Hungary, which is associated with the name of Kossuth, met with a similar rebuff, the Jugo-Slavs and Russia lending their aid to suppress it. Hungary was deprived of its Constitution as well as of its independence, and fell for a time under direct Austrian control.

#### (4) THE BACH PERIOD AND AFTER

The decade (1849–59) which followed has received the descriptive title of Bach's period. Bach had seceded from Liberalism to Autocracy; and his policy, as Minister of the Interior, consisted in centralizing and 'Germanizing' the Austrian dominions. The defeat of Austria at the hands of France and Italy in 1859 brought this régime to a close. Attacked on all sides, Bach fell, and his system with him. Once more the Austrian Government stood at the crossways, and had to decide between a federal and a centralized Constitution. The 'October Charter', or Diploma, which appeared on October 20, 1860, was conceived on federal lines; but it was the federalism of 1847—a triumph rather for the old Aristocracy than for the new spirit of Nationality. It restored the local institutions prevalent before 1848, but ignored the constitutional concessions of that year. This was fatal to its success in Hungary, where the laws of 1848 were regarded as

a charter of liberties. Discontent and passive resistance produced administrative anarchy. The Emperor veered round and put himself in the hands of the centralizers. The result was the Patent of 1861. The chief features of this Constitution were an Imperial Diet, empowered to raise taxes and pass legislation, and Provincial Diets charged with the election of members to the Imperial Diet. It was claimed for the new Constitution that it secured the representation of all the interests of the Empire in proportion to their importance. The representation was not, however, based on numbers, and was so regulated as to secure a constant majority for the German element in the population. Under the appearance of constitutional reform the bureaucracy was reinstated; the representative body was not a Parliament but an Imperial Council, the organ of an absolute administration which was secured by the alliance of the Government with the Austro-German upper and middle classes. Foreign policy and the control of military affairs were outside the range of the Reichsrat and reserved for the Ministers and the Court. The scheme, which was universally accepted in Austria, outraged Hungarian national pride, and produced determined resistance in that country. The disastrous defeat of Austria at the battle of Sadowa (1866) gave Hungary a fresh opportunity to assert its independence; and Deák, the Hungarian leader, pressed his case with great moderation. The Emperor gave way; and the principle of Dualism—the third possible solution of the Austrian problem—was adopted in the *Ausgleich*, or Compromise, of 1867. This scheme was negotiated by Beust, Deák, and Julius Andrassy, the first being responsible for Austrian, the two latter for Hungarian interests. The fall from power of Belcredi, the opponent of Dualism and the champion of the Slavs, was significant of the fact that the German and Magyar races of the Empire had come to terms at the expense of the Slavs. The Germans were to dominate Austria, the Magyars Hungary; and injustice to the other nationalities became almost a principle of government.



### (5) THE AUSGLEICH

'Dualism' was precisely a compromise. The Kingdom of Hungary, unlike that of Bohemia or Croatia, was placed on a par with the Cis-Leithan dominions of the Empire of Austria, which now received recognition as a separate State.<sup>1</sup> Hungary was in other words admitted to federal, or more than federal, privileges which were denied to the other and more loyal Habsburg territories. In this anomalous fashion arose the Dual Monarchy, between whose members the River Leitha is assumed to form a boundary line. At the basis of the Ausgleich is the recognition of three common services—foreign policy, finance, and war. A minister common to both countries is appointed to control each of these three departments, and is made responsible to the Delegations, or Imperial Representative Assembly elected annually by the two Parliaments of Austria and Hungary. Other matters of common interest are arranged either between the Austrian and Hungarian Cabinets or by special deputations; and the legislation necessary to give effect to their decisions is passed by each Parliament separately.

The Delegations have worked tolerably well, though it seems certain that the policy of the Triple Alliance would not have been endorsed by the Austrian people, as it was only sustained in the Delegations by the aid of the delegates from the Upper House. The Austrian Constitution has worked ill.

### (6) THE AUSTRIAN CONSTITUTION

The Patent of 1861 which, with some modifications, formed the basis of the Constitution of 1867, had set up in Austria a Parliament (Reichsrat) consisting of two Chambers, the members of the Upper determined by heredity, merit, or office, those of the Lower selected by the Provincial Diets (Landtage). These local assemblies were elected on a register which, under the curial arrangement, gave unequal representation to different nationalities and to different class interests. The curiae

<sup>1</sup> Eisenmann, Louis, *Le Compromis austro-hongrois*, p. 494.

represented four elements—the cities, rural districts, chambers of commerce, and great landowners. This system of indirect election lasted until 1873, when the principle of direct election was introduced, though the curial basis remained; further changes in 1882 and 1896 prepared the way for universal suffrage, which was carried in 1907. A lasting source of friction was the effective supersession at the Emperor's will of the Reichsrat's legislative powers, by the provisions of Article 13 of the Patent (or, as it subsequently became, Article 14 of the *Ausgleich*), which enabled the Cabinet in cases of urgency, when Parliament was not sitting, to legislate by imperial decree. Legislation passed under this rule might not, however, impose a permanent charge on State revenues, alienate national property, or alter constitutional law, and must, to retain its force, be submitted to Parliament within four weeks of its next meeting and be approved by one of the two Chambers. Thus the Emperor, empowered to dissolve or adjourn Parliament and to nominate and direct the executive, retained a large measure of sovereign power, with but slight limitations, of which the chief was, perhaps, the obligation to summon Parliament annually. It was also his duty to take an oath, on his accession, to maintain the Constitution, but should he omit this guarantee there was no provision for enforcing it. In fact, as will be seen, the unscrupulous application of the law produced in practice something like absolutism.

#### (b) AUSTRIAN DOMESTIC HISTORY SINCE 1867

The domestic history of Austria and of Hungary between 1867 and 1914 is a commentary on the issues which have been indicated in the preceding pages—the rivalry between the two monarchies; the legislative authority to be enjoyed by the Government in the absence of Parliament; above all, the question of the subject races; and, intimately connected with this, the questions of suffrage extension and federalism. Ministries were almost always challenged to deal with one



or other of these matters in some form or shape, and were constantly wrecked upon their attempts to do so. The German element in Austria, unduly powerful at the polls, could rely, not only upon the moral support of the Magyars, but upon that of the newly-created German Empire. This influence was a permanent factor with which all Premiers, however equitably minded, had to reckon. It would be out of place to trace in detail the fortunes of the various administrations; only the principal men and measures can be indicated.

#### (7) THE POTOCKI AND HOHENWART MINISTRIES

Potocki in 1870 was the first to define a conciliatory nationalist and federalist policy. He wanted a Reichsrat chosen by direct election, an Upper Chamber chosen by the provincial diets, and a measure of local autonomy. He pleased neither side in the controversy. The Slavs criticized what was centralist, the Germans what was federalist in his project; and he fell almost directly. The Emperor, alarmed at the growth of Pan-German sentiment, decided in 1871 to throw himself upon a Nationalist, Clerical, and Conservative combination under the leadership of Hohenwart, who proposed a lower franchise, increased autonomy, and equal treatment for the different nationalities. He was defeated rather by the national pride of the Czechs, who would be content to obtain nothing less for Bohemia than the Magyars had obtained for Hungary, than by the opposition of the German Liberals.

#### (8) THE AUERSPERG LIBERAL MINISTRY (1871-9)

The Emperor then tried a Liberal Administration under Prince Adolf Auersperg, in which the Minister of the Interior, Lassar, was the central figure. Various internal reforms were successfully carried out, but once more the question of nationalities brought the ministry to an end. The passage of the Law of 1873 introducing

direct election to the Reichsrat was, however, a check for the Federalists. Under this arrangement the Reichsrat representatives were elected independently of the diets, and the policy of passive resistance in the diets was, therefore, precluded, whilst a disproportionate increase of representation granted to the municipal and commercial curiae (which were doubled, the rural curia being only augmented by two-thirds) gave a further advantage to the German middle-class element.

### (9) THE UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT

The balance at the next general election swung the other way. Taaffe's long administration (1879-93), which owed much to the Premier's perfect acquaintance with parliamentary artifice, rested increasingly on the support of the Catholic centre, the Poles, the Czechs, the Socialists, and the Christian Socialists—in fact all the elements antipathetic to the German Liberals. Although he included at different times Liberal, Conservative, and Nationalist elements in his Cabinets, his main policy was to strengthen the authority of the Emperor and to be above all the 'Minister of the Crown'. His proposal of October 1893 to extend the suffrage to all who could read and write, had a sufficient knowledge of one of the national languages, and could prove a residence of six months in the place where they were employed, showed a larger and more sympathetic vision, and was probably inspired by the Emperor, who, after the disaster of 1866, desired to curtail the Pan-German influences in Austria-Hungary by the elevation of the subject races. Taaffe's policy was, however, unacceptable to the Conservatives of the Right and to the Polish Nationalists as well as to the German Liberals. His administration fell; and his successor, Badeni (1895-7), carried universal suffrage in an attenuated form by the addition of a fifth curia to the other four (1896). Out of 425 seats, 72 fell to 5,500,000 voters, while the 1,700,000 voters in the privileged curiae held the other 353. This scheme

naturally afforded no permanent basis of settlement ; and ten years of unrest followed its passage into law. It was during this period that use was first made of Article 14 (legislation by imperial decree) of the *Ausgleich*. But the attempt of Körber (Prime Minister 1900-4) to govern on non-contentious lines failed entirely. The racial issue, of which the suffrage question was the immediate expression, could not be shelved. Körber fell ; and, a year later, Beck carried universal suffrage. The Electoral Law of 1907 abolished the *curiae* and gave the right of voting to all Austrians over 24 years of age who were not subject to obvious disqualifications—bankruptcy, criminal conviction, restraint, &c. The rival nationalities problem was met by the creation of racial registers and constituencies, so that election contests lay, not between candidates of rival nationality, but between candidates of the same nationality and rival opinion. The Germans were still the gainers under this system. They were estimated to have 45 per cent. of seats with just over 35 per cent. of population. The Czechs, on the other hand, received 20 per cent. of seats with a population of over 23 per cent. ; the Ruthenians were represented to the amount of just over 6 per cent. with a population of just over 13 per cent.

The effect of the Electoral Law was to mitigate the spirit of nationalism, and to this extent to weld Austria into a more homogeneous State than it had been before. This was shown in the new *Reichsrat* by the preponderance of the economic over the racial parties. The Social Democrats (85) and the Christian Socialists (67) had the largest following ; and it will be necessary later to say a few words about these two important factors in Austrian politics.

#### (10) LATER ADMINISTRATIONS (1906-16)

Beck's Ministry of officials, which was responsible for the Universal Suffrage Act, was responsible also for the negotiation of the decennial commercial *Ausgleich* with Hungary, which is treated of in the economic section. It



has been said that Austria bought economic advantages—free trade within the Empire, a commercial court of arbitration, &c.—at the price of political concessions in the form of a fuller recognition of Hungarian independence; and the commercial Ausgleich was therefore nicknamed the Compromise of Separation. The other notable feature of Beck's administration was the skilful management of Parliament by backstairs intrigue, as to the ultimate effect of which procedure the Premier showed himself cynically indifferent. The racial conflict in Bohemia proved fatal to his administration; and in November 1908 he was succeeded by Baron von Bienenrth (1908–11), whose Ministry, formed almost entirely from permanent officials, was regarded at first as provisional, though subsequently the inclusion of some members of Parliament gave it a more permanent character. Racial feeling did not subside, and parliamentary history consisted mainly in the obstructive tactics of the Slav Nationalists. Finally, on November 26, 1909, a motion to appoint a committee to deal with racial questions and bills involving racial questions was carried with good results. Another bill empowering the President of the Chamber to suppress obstructive motions completed the work, and the session closed in a businesslike fashion. Obstructive tactics were little resorted to during 1910, until in December the Poles suddenly caused a crisis on the canals question, and the Ministry resigned. A reconstructed administration and a new Parliament, however, gave no better prospects; and Bienenrth finally retired in June 1911.

Baron Gautsch's Ministry was not long-lived. Before the end of the year Count Stuerghk had established himself in office with a working majority. He was in power when the war began, and was assassinated (21 Oct. 1916) during its continuance. His administration was characterized by the usual racial agitations, culminating in the crime of Sarajevo; but these are more conveniently treated in the books dealing separately with the Austro-Hungarian states.



## II. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

### (1) RELIGIOUS

AUSTRIA is predominantly Catholic. In 1910 the Roman Catholics numbered 22,530,169, the Greek Catholics 3,417,223; and there were also 2,235 Armenian Catholics, so that the Papacy had about 26,000,000 adherents out of the total population of 28,571,934. Though no new religious orders or societies can even now be established without State sanction, religious toleration in Austria is commonly dated from the Toleration Edict of Joseph II in 1781: it was not, however, completely established until the *Protestanten-patent* of 1861 gave full civil rights to the Protestants. The members of the Orthodox Church in Austria, excluding Bosnia-Herzegovina, numbered some 666,000 in 1910. They are mostly to be found in the Bukovina and Dalmatia and belong partly to the Slav and partly to the Vlach race. The Metropolitan See is at Czernowitz. The Orthodox community in Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1910 numbered 825,418.

The Lutherans in 1910 numbered 444,307 and the Calvinists 144,379. The Evangelical Church (that is, the Augsburg and Geneva Confessions) is under the control of an Imperial Royal Evangelical or Church Council in Vienna.

There are 1,313,687 Jews in Austria. The Lippowaner, a sect of Rumanians and Ruthenes, number 3,270, and are to be found mostly in the Bukovina. Joseph II did his best to make the Catholic Church no more than a department of the State; and it was not until 1849 that it recovered the right to manage its own affairs and to maintain free intercourse with the Vatican. Its fortunes rose in 1855, when a Concordat

gave it large authority in educational and matrimonial matters, but fell again after 1867, when education was placed under State control, civil marriage was legalized, and religious bodies placed upon an equality. Church property, however, which in Austria is officially estimated to amount at the present day to approximately £34,000,000, remained and remains practically unaffected; that is to say, the Church continues to possess administrative freedom on condition that an abstract of Church accounts is presented annually to the Government by the ecclesiastical authorities. The proclamation in 1870 of the dogma of Papal Infallibility was, however, made the occasion of a Rescript invalidating the Concordat on the ground that under the dogma its provisions had been rendered violable at the arbitrary will of the Pope; and in 1874 the Concordat was formally annulled and the respective provinces of Church and State defined. Under this new arrangement the Emperor, in almost every case, appointed to vacant bishoprics. The position of the Catholic Church in Austria was not seriously affected by the *Los von Rom* Movement, which was started by Schönerer in the last decade of the nineteenth century as an auxiliary to the Pan-German Movement. Schönerer's programme was to 'break the chains which bind us to a Church hostile to Germanism'; and Protestant societies countenanced and aided it. It is estimated to have attracted in the first ten years of its existence some seventy thousand converts. Opposition took effective shape in the Societies of St. Boniface and St. Raphael, and in the Christian Socialist party, which was strongly supported by the Archduke Franz Ferdinand. Both these organizations aim at combining sentiments of German nationality with Catholic principles; but, broadly speaking, the Catholic clergy of Austria tend to sympathize with the Slav national movements and show themselves antipathetic to Germanism, which is distasteful to them on account of its Liberal and Socialist tendencies. The regular clergy—i. e. the

religious Orders—in Austria have a bad name. They are very wealthy and their partial subjection to the State, which was one of the achievements of Joseph II, has done them no good. The vigorous efforts of the Vatican have been unsuccessful, at any rate until recently, in procuring any reformation of the prevailing laxity in religious houses. An exception to the general condemnation must be made in favour of the Jesuits and the Redemptorists, who are largely responsible for what genuine religious feeling exists. The members of these Orders are, however, mostly drawn from the Catholic parts of Germany.

The secular clergy and the Episcopate include a considerable number of persons of good family, whose personal characters are above reproach and who discharge their duties conscientiously. But the fact remains that the moral standard in Austria, if measured by the statistics of illegitimate births, is low, these being actually estimated in the case of Carinthia at the figure of 41 per cent.

The political influence of the Catholic Church is exercised principally through three organizations: (1) the Christian Socialist Party; (2) the Catholic School Association, which is designed to oppose secularism in the schools; and (3) the *Piusverein*, a society formed to subsidize the clerical and Catholic press (c. g. the *Reichspost*, the *Vaterland*, the *Deutsches Volksblatt*, and the *Kronenzeitung*) as a counterblast to the active Jewish and anti-clerical organs.

## (2) POLITICAL—(a) FORM, CHARACTER, AND METHODS OF GOVERNMENT

*The Executive.*—Under the Constitution of 1867 the Dual Monarchy is united by the person of the Emperor-King. His prerogative includes the right to make war and peace, and to exercise the administrative functions of government through ministers, who, though appointed by him, are so far responsible to Parliament that his right of pardon is limited in the case of ministerial

impeachments. Control of the ministers entrusted with the common services of the Dual Monarchy—War, Foreign Affairs, and Finance—is secured through the Delegations. These two bodies, consisting of sixty members each, chosen by the Austrian and Hungarian Parliaments, two-thirds of them from the Lower and one-third from the Upper House, are summoned by the Emperor alternately to Vienna and Budapest, to vote the common Budget, which they discuss and approve separately, or, in the case of disagreement, vote upon in common but without discussion.

The Parliaments can only consider the Budgets from the point of view of the imposition of taxes.

*The Legislature.*—The Austrian Parliament (Reichsrat) is concerned with all legislative matters relating to the provinces of Austria. The Emperor, at his accession, takes the oath before it to observe the Constitution, which obliges him to summon it annually. He has the power to convoke, adjourn, and dissolve it; but, in case of dissolution, a general election must be held within six months. The natural life of a Parliament is six years. The Upper House contains, besides members of the Imperial Family: (i) hereditary nobles possessed of large landed estates; (ii) nine archbishops and eight prince-bishops; (iii) life members, not less than 150 or more than 170 in number, nominated by the Emperor for distinguished service and including representatives of art and science. The Lower House is elected by universal male suffrage on the part of Austrian subjects twenty-four years of age, and resident for at least a year in the electoral district concerned, who are not disqualified by bankruptcy, crime, tutelage, or the receipt of public relief. Registers are compiled on a nationality basis—Czech, German, or Polish, as the case may be. Candidates, who must be thirty years of age, are by this arrangement opposed to one another, not on the score of nationality, but on the score of political opinion. The representation of the different parts of the Empire is thus arranged:



Bohemia . . . . .	130
Dalmatia . . . . .	11
Galicia . . . . .	106
Lower Austria . . . . .	64
Upper Austria . . . . .	22
Salzburg . . . . .	7
Styria . . . . .	30
Carinthia (Kärnten) . . . . .	10
Carniola (Krain) . . . . .	12
Bukovina . . . . .	14
Moravia . . . . .	49
Upper and Lower Silcsia . . . . .	15
Tyrol . . . . .	25
Vorarlberg . . . . .	4
Istria . . . . .	6
Görz and Gradisca . . . . .	6
Trieste and district . . . . .	5

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It is perhaps worth noting that of these deputies less than half are of German nationality.

The members of the Lower House in Austria are paid ten florins (16s. 8*d.*) a day during the session. Money and Recruiting Bills must originate in the Lower House: other Bills can originate in either House. In the event of disagreement between the Houses a conference between delegates from each is held. In spite of the attempt to check racial hostilities by grouping the electorate in racial registers as above described, the quarrels between different nationalities in the Lower Chamber have so impeded public business that Paragraph 14 of the Constitution, authorizing legislation by Imperial decree where the matter is urgent and where no change in constitutional law, alienation of State property, or new permanent financial charge is involved, has been freely used to meet the situation.

There are eight Ministries—the Interior, Justice, Public Instruction, Commerce, Agriculture, Finance, Public Defence, Railways, and, in addition, two ministers without portfolio for Galicia and Bohemia.

Provincial administration is carried on through



a Governor. Beneath the province is the circle (*Bezirk*) with its captain (*Bezirkshauptmann*), and beneath the circle is the commune, an autonomous body.

### (b) POLITICAL PARTIES

It is difficult to overestimate the parliamentary arts required in the leader of a government in the Austrian Chamber. It was estimated that the first universal suffrage Parliament contained thirty-five groups, representing complex combinations of race and opinion such as no other State in the world has to face and before which genuine attempts at equitable legislation are almost bound to succumb. Two of the most important of these groups require a word of comment, viz. the Social Democratic and the Christian Socialist parties.

*The Social Democratic Party.*—Labour first came to self-consciousness in Austria about the time of the Ausgleich (1867), when a Liberal Government had authorized to a limited degree the right of public meeting and combination. It was then that the ideas of Marx's manifesto began to affect the minds of the more educated members of the Austrian proletariat. These were found principally among the German section of the population who had maintained their intellectual intercourse with Germany in spite of the political severance of 1866. Hence the Labour Movement in Austria had its source in the ideas of a German-Jewish writer, filtered through the minds of Austrian Germans, and was exploited by Austrian Jews. The Jewish control is visible in the fact that all the principal Social Democratic leaders—Adler, Ingwer, Ellenbogen—were Jews. The Labour Movement, which began on the basis of a mutual improvement society, rapidly developed political tendencies, and as early as 1869 direct and universal suffrage was demanded in a petition presented by mass meeting of workmen in Vienna. The presence of Schäffle, one of the so-called *Katheder-Sozialisten*, in the Hohenwart Ministry (1871) raised expectations not destined at that time to be realized.

In 1878 there occurred a party split, one-half of the party, under the title of the *Arbeitervolkspartei*, associating themselves with the Federalists and the Clericals against the German Liberals; but in 1886 the party breach was healed. At the important Hainfeld Conference in 1889, which was attended by Slav as well as German representatives of the labour party, a Socialist programme was framed which denounced the existing structure of society, particularly the slavery of the working classes involved in private ownership of the instruments of labour, national and class privilege, and the maintenance of a standing army as distinct from a militia; it declared also for universal suffrage, freedom of opinion, labour legislation, and for free and secular education with the consequent separation of Church and State. At this stage the party declared itself international and in favour of parliamentary action. A strong Socialist organization was subsequently evolved, of which the effects were made visible in Count Taaffe's proposal in 1893 to extend the suffrage, and also in the addition of the fifth Curia in 1896. In 1897 the Socialist organization was decentralized and recast on racial lines. This marked a breaking away from the German influences which had hitherto controlled the movement. At the same time a strong element of anti-clericalism began to appear in the counsels of the party. This was no doubt the result of the rise of the Christian Socialists. At the first election after the introduction of universal suffrage the Social Democrats were the largest single party and held 85 seats. In 1911 they won only 81 seats, but some of these were of great importance. One of the ablest leaders of this party, Dr. Victor Adler, threw all his weight on the side of constitutional as against revolutionary methods: he even discouraged political agitation outside the Reichsrat, which body he believed offered the best means of carrying out the revolution desired by the workers. He was the chief supporter of the *Arbeiterzeitung*, which was the organ of the party. The impossibility, however, of reconciling racial differences has

obstructed the parliamentary programme of both the Socialist parties.

*The Christian Socialists.*—The foundation of the Christian Socialist Party originated in an attempt to oppose the Semitic influences, which directed Austrian Socialism, by a programme not less attractive to the working classes, but grounded on Christian principles. The first association was founded in 1887. The personality of Dr. Lueger, the then Burgomaster of Vienna, whose truculent and overbearing manners did not prevent him from enjoying immense popularity among the masses, early dominated the movement. He disliked Jews and Magyars; and his great talents of political organization gave him a power in Vienna and Lower Austria somewhat similar to that exercised by Chamberlain in and around Birmingham. The Christian Socialist Party grew by leaps and bounds. In 1907 it commanded 67 seats in the Reichsrat which was elected on universal suffrage; and a subsequent amalgamation with the German Clericals raised its numbers to 96 and gave it a majority over the Social Democrats. Though the party did not bear a clerical stamp, and has in fact been viewed with anxiety and even hostility by Catholic ecclesiastics, the suspicion of clerical influences in its counsels produced in 1896 a secession led by Schoenerer and Wolf, who formed a Pan-German nationalist movement with 'Los von Rom' as its motto. Dr. Lueger's famous resolution proposed at the Catholic Congress in 1907, to the effect that the conquest of the Universities was the object to which the Christian Socialists would devote all their energies, was commonly, though perhaps hastily, regarded as conclusive proof of the triumph of clerical influence. The aims of the Christian Socialists, however, extend far beyond education. Without attempting minute definition, one may affirm generally that the Christian Socialist Party stands for an Austria in which the Germans would be dominant. In the early years of the movement a more sympathetic treatment of the Slavs was contemplated; but latterly



the German Nationalist spirit came to predominate, largely owing to the growth of the Czech element in Vienna, the head-quarters of the party. Another of the Christian Socialist aims was the establishment of guilds (*Gewerbege nossenschaften*), which by encouraging small industries with the aid of protection would tend to undermine the capitalist and co-operative systems. The Christian Socialists are in theory not a religious but a political party, though of Christian affinities, and cannot properly be described as Catholic in the sense in which this title is applied to the Centre Party in Germany, though in practice the difference is not great. A leading Christian Socialist in the person of Dr. Gessman entered the Cabinet as Minister of Public Works in 1907. As the new Ministry was entrusted with social legislation relating to mines and factories, the appointment had more than ordinary significance. In 1911 the Christian Socialists lost ground heavily, especially in Vienna. Dr. Lueger had died the previous year; and this circumstance, taken in conjunction with charges of corruption and the unpopularity of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, whose patronage the party had enjoyed, may account for their downfall. The *Reichspost* is the organ of the Christian Socialists. In regard to foreign affairs, their leader in 1906 supported the Austro-German alliance as the basis of policy.

*The Deutschnationalverband.*—Next in importance was the *Deutschnationalverband*, a fusion of the three German Liberal groups (Progressives, Radicals, and Nationalists), which was effected in 1910. All these groups were drawn from the German districts of Austria. They commanded seventy-seven votes in the first universal suffrage Parliament, and in 1911 increased their numbers to ninety-nine. The Agrarians form yet another parliamentary group, of whom twenty-one were German and twenty-seven Czech.

## (3) EDUCATIONAL

There are two classes of elementary schools—the *Volks-* and *Bürgerschulen*, of which the former teach the first principles of religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, natural science, history, geography, and drawing, and the latter carry the instruction in these subjects farther and add to them such subjects as book-keeping, geometry, and, in certain cases, music and modern languages. Attendance is obligatory on all from the ages of six to fourteen, or in some provinces from six to twelve. As regards religious teaching, which occupies the chief place in the curriculum, the ecclesiastical authorities of the various recognized denominations have access to the schools, and the clergy are bound to give a certain modicum of religious instruction in the *Volksschulen* without payment; but, if remuneration becomes due, it is drawn from public funds. As regards the language question, the rule is that the provincial school council, which is presided over by the Governor of the province and includes educational experts, clergy, and representatives of the local diet, should determine what language or languages are to be taught in any school. An opportunity is always afforded to learn German.

The immediate local educational authority is the District School Council, a body representative of the ratepayers and the parish. Between this and the Provincial School Council is another body, the County School Council, which, besides determining questions respecting the building and staffing of schools, regulates the affairs of private elementary schools and kindergartens.

Secondary education is carried on by the *Gymnasia* and the *Realschulen*, which may be public or private. The former furnish a classical, the latter a modern education. There are also 4,000 technical institutes in which the knowledge of different trades and professions can be pursued. Technical high schools for instruction in agriculture, architecture, chemistry, and



engineering are also open to those who have obtained certificates for proficiency in secondary education. At the summit of the educational structures are the eight universities of Vienna, Graz, Innsbruck, Prague (2), Czernowitz, Lemberg, and Cracow.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

### (a) PUBLIC OPINION

Public opinion, in the sense in which it can be spoken of in other countries, can hardly be said to exist in Austria. Austrian Germans speak of their 'nation', and include in this term the Germans of Bohemia, Tirol, Upper and Lower Austria, Moravia, Styria, and Carinthia; and there appears to be some realization of intellectual and moral solidarity among them which draws them together.

The Austrian Germans have, of course, certain other obvious sources of strength. They have kept their predominance in the administration, and have maintained their language as the leading though not the exclusive language of the State; they still form a strong group in Parliament, though since the Law of Universal Suffrage (1907) they are no longer numerically the strongest, and their influence as a national party has been further weakened in connexion with the 'Los von Rom' and Pan-German movements. In Parliament they have been chiefly occupied in keeping in check the separatist tendencies of other national groups, and, except in so far as their views are expressed by the Socialists, they have not shown any constructive policy. As an instance of the inconsistencies and cross-currents which are found in Austrian politics, it may be noted that the *Neue Freie Presse* claims to be the organ of Austrian-German opinion. This paper is probably the most influential though not the most respectable representative of the press, and it has been said that most of what passes for public opinion in Austria is

manufactured by it; it is, however, owned, edited, and written by Jews, though the Austrian Germans, whose mouthpiece it claims to be, are violently anti-Semitic.

The educated middle classes, from whom are drawn the civil servants, the officers of the army, and the professors, are the chief supporters of the German party; and it remains to be seen whether the race dominance for which it stands will prove stronger than the Socialist movement of the industrial workers, which is anti-bourgeois, anti-capitalist, and anti-militarist.

### (b) THE LANGUAGE QUESTION

The Germans in Austria have urged that the predominance of their race is necessary for the preservation of the State—for them a higher conception than that of nationality—and that this justifies the policy of Germanizing the other peoples of the Empire to the extent of making the knowledge of German a necessity for the full exercise of citizenship. By the Constitution of 1867 the rights of the subordinate languages were formally safeguarded. Clause 19 of the *Ausgleich* runs as follows: 'All the peoples of the State are placed upon an equality, and each people in particular has the right to a guarantee of the inviolability of its nationality and of its language. The equality of all the languages used in the Empire, in schools, administration, and public life is recognized by the State. In the countries where different nationalities exist, public educational institutions ought to be organized in such a way that, without being compelled to learn a second language, every citizen may acquire all the necessary means of instruction.'

The application of the law has, however, presented many difficulties and contradictions. In a country of so many nationalities as Austria, a language may be 'usual' (*landesüblich*) in a district, and yet not be the language of the people (*Landessprache*). It was possible, for example, for the Germans to claim that, since their

language was that of the central administration, it was 'usual' everywhere, and for the Czechs, on the other hand, to maintain that their vernacular was 'usual', even in those parts of Bohemia most thickly populated by Germans; and similar difficulties presented themselves among other subordinate nationalities. An attempt to find a compromise between the 'maternal' language and the 'official' language has resulted in the adoption, for statistical purposes, of the language most commonly spoken (*Umgangssprache*)—a method which facilitates the collection of information as regards the population, but does not pretend to secure its accuracy from the point of view of the nationalities in the district. For the purpose of business or employment German is often used, even by people whose mother tongue may be Ruthenian or Slovene, and who, for the sake of convenience, may range themselves as German-speaking.

Hence, statistics made by the administration in regard to population on the *Umgangssprache* basis must not be too hastily accepted as giving an actual census of nationalities.

The rapid development of national sentiment in recent years has forced this question of language into the first place in Austrian Cis-Leithan politics. Although German is no longer the exclusive official language, except in the Italian-speaking districts and in certain parts of Galicia, it is used in all the internal public services, including the administration of the railways since they became State property, and is the language of command, though not necessarily of instruction, in the Army and Navy; in this latter service, however, the officers must also have a knowledge of Serbo-Croatian.

It was inevitable that the last paragraph of the 19th Clause of the *Ausgleich*, referring to language of instruction in 'public educational institutions', should have given rise to the greatest difference of opinion. The Germans could argue that, if carried out literally in bilingual districts, it would tend to hamper rather than

facilitate intercourse among the people; and except in Bohemia no attempt has been made to apply it. In addition, the Germans have felt, not unnaturally, that their own language was on a much higher plane of 'Kultur' and had greater educational value; they have accordingly been reluctant to accede to the persistent demands of the Slavs for the recognition of their vernacular in all grades of instruction. In regard, however, to primary instruction the 'usual' (*landesüblich*) language of the scholars has, generally speaking, received recognition, even in polyglot communities.

(For further discussion of this very involved question reference may be made to A. Fischel, *Das österreichische Sprachenrecht*, pp. 382 and 389, where a summary of local usages will be found.)



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## MAPS

For the geography of Austria, see notes on Maps in the books on *Bohemia and Moravia* (No. 2), *Austrian Silesia* (No. 4), *Bukovina* (No. 5), *Carniola, Carinthia, and Styria* (No. 9), *The Austrian Littoral* (No. 10), *Dalmatia* (No. 11), *Bosnia and Herzegovina* (No. 12), of this series.

For ethnography, see the Ethnographical Map of Central and South-eastern Europe, issued by the War Office in four sheets (G.S.G.S. 3703 *a*) ; Maps, vol. 4, in this series ; and *L'Europe ethnique et linguistique: Atlas descriptif en trois cartes*, published by De Agostini's Geographical Institute, Novara (1917).

# HUNGARY

## I. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

- c. 890 The Coming of the Magyars.
- 1000 Coronation of St. Stephen.
- 1222 The Golden Bull.
- 1308 The Angevin Kings replace the Arpad Dynasty.
- 1526 The Battle of Mohács. The Habsburgs established.
- 1608 Religious toleration partially adopted by the Emperor Matthias.
- 1699 Peace of Carlowitz; Hungary mostly recovered.
- 1724 The Pragmatic Sanction.
- 1848 The Revolution.
- 1867 The Ausgleich or Compromise.
- 1868 The Law of Nationalities.
- 1904-5 The Universal Suffrage Crisis.

### DOMESTIC HISTORY TO 1867

*Origins.*—Hungary occupies a central position in Eastern Europe, divides the northern from the southern Slavs, and is dominated by a non-Aryan race. The Magyars, according to the earliest documents, had their home in the Ural Mountains, not far from the Volga. Summoned by the Eastern Roman Emperor to aid him against the Moravian Empire, they moved eventually westwards, about 890, under the leadership of Arpad, within whose family the monarchy became elective. Victorious at first, they occupied Buda, but were signally defeated by the Emperor Otto I at Augsburg in 955. Their advance westward was checked, and they settled down, choosing, as was natural in the case of a nation of horsemen, the plains (the greater and lesser Alföld), and leaving the mountain regions to the Slavs and Rumanians. By the close of the tenth century the extent of their territories approximated to that of modern Hungary. By the year 1000 they had been converted to Christianity,

largely through the efforts of their chief, Stephen. He was created a king and subsequently a saint by the Popes; the expression "Apostolic Kingdom" originated in these circumstances. The religious connection with Rome had a more important political result. It drew the Magyars, Turanians though they were, into the orbit of the Western Powers, and tended to alienate them more and more as time went on from the Orthodox Slavs, with whom they might otherwise have been expected to make common cause. St. Stephen deliberately encouraged the influence of Western thought. His advice to his son is on record, and moulded the policy of his successors: "Treat newcomers well and hold them in honour. . . . A country where only one language and one custom prevails is weak and fragile." St. Stephen's domestic policy left permanent traces in another direction. A development took place in the *comitat*, which formed, and still forms, the foundation of the system of national defence and administration.

*The Golden Bull (1222).*—The incapable government of King Andrew II (1205—1235), the contemporary of King John of England, produced the Magna Charta of Hungary. The Golden Bull contains thirty-one articles, of which the last, giving the bishops and nobles the right of resistance without incurring the penalties of high treason should the Sovereign violate the Charter, is perhaps the most important. For the rest, the Bull provided for the holding of an annual Diet of the nation at the town of Székes Fejérvár (Stuhlweissenburg), for the trial of the nobility and gentry by the Palatine, for their immunity from extraordinary taxation, and against the inheritance of public offices. It was in the main a charter for the benefit of the gentry, whom it erected into a privileged class, and was apparently designed to strengthen the hands of the King against the tyranny of the magnates. The large number of the gentry, or "sandal-nobles"—they were no more than freemen—and the equal rights which they enjoyed with



the Magyar magnates in the National Assembly are vital features in Hungarian history. Only so late as 1608 were the gentry formally separated from the greater nobility by their exclusion from the Diet, which was then divided into two Chambers.

*The German Plantation.*—The invasion of the country by the Mongols in 1241 took place in the following reign. King Bela IV (1235—1270) was defeated, and though the invaders were ultimately repelled they left behind them a devastated land. It was in these circumstances that German colonies, for which the cities of Szepes (Zips) formed a nucleus, were planted. The colonists were induced to come by the promise of grants of land and extensive local autonomy.

*The Mediæval Kings.*—In 1301 the Arpad dynasty died out, and, thanks in part to the Pope, Charles Robert of Naples (1308—1342), one of the Angevin line, was recognised as King of Hungary. His claims were contested both by the King of Bohemia and in Northern Hungary by Matthew Csak of Trencsén, whom the Slovaks have now idealised as a national hero, but he triumphed over his opponents. His son, Louis the Great (1342—1382), embarked upon an enterprising foreign policy, and secured for himself the crown of Poland, and for his country a seaboard by the occupation of Dalmatia. His daughter married the son of Charles IV of Bohemia, who became known in history as the Emperor Sigismund, and who succeeded Louis on the throne of Hungary. Sigismund was the first to combine the possession of the kingdom of Hungary with that of the imperial crown. His daughter, Elizabeth, married Albert of Austria; and the kingdom of Hungary came for the first time, though only for a few years, under the control of the House of Habsburg. The new King, however, had to make his terms with the Magyars. These included the consultation of the Diet in regard to the appointment of the Palatine, a functionary who, from being the chief Court official, thus became the judicial guardian of

the constitution, and remained until 1848 the intermediary between king and people. Albert only reigned two years (1437—9), and his son, Ladislaus Postumus, was set aside in favour of the King of Poland, Wladislaw Jagellon, who was thus put in a position to use the forces of Hungary and Poland in a common effort to stay the onset of the Turks. These were the days of John Hunyady, whose victories and defeats in the Turkish War there is no occasion to follow. His fame secured the election to the throne of his son Mathias Corvinus, ten years after Wladislaw had fallen at the disastrous battle of Varna (1444). The reign of Mathias, in spite of wasteful wars with Austria and Bohemia, is generally regarded as the apogee of the independent Hungarian kingdom; and his policy of strengthening the hands of the gentry against the magnates for the work of county self-government was of lasting consequence. Under his successor, Wladislaw II (1490—1516), the country was united with Poland and Bohemia by the possession of a common sovereign. The reign of Wladislaw II is notable for (i) the law of 1504 which made the Diet the sole source of any grant of revenue to the sovereign, to the exclusion under heavy penalties of any grants from local bodies; (ii) the law of 1514 (passed after a peasant revolt) which deprived the peasantry of the right of migration, and consequently had the effect of permanently embittering class relations; and (iii) Verböczy's codification of Hungarian constitutional law, under the title of *Jus Tripartitum*, which was solemnly ratified by Wladislaw. The King's position as defined in this document has been described as that of "a life-president of a semi-oligarchical State in which the mass of the peasants had no influence whatever, and the trading population little or none."<sup>1</sup> The real sovereign was the whole body of Magyar freemen, whose consent was

<sup>1</sup> Knatchbull-Hugessen, *Political Evolution of Hungary*, I, p. 63.

necessary to legislation, and who could, if they would, take the initiative in proposing it.

*The Turkish Conquest.*—The constitution failed notably to provide an army adequate to meet the rising power of the Turks; and the kingdom declined in strength under Louis II (1516—1526) and came to a catastrophic end at the Battle of Mohács (1526). The Turks overran the greater part of the country; and, under the influence of a wish to combine the forces of Eastern Christendom against the Moslems, some of the Magyars invited Ferdinand of Austria, who had married the sister of Louis II of Hungary, to be their King. The precise title of the Habsburgs to the throne, which, after a contest with John Zapolya, the Voivode of Transylvania, Ferdinand succeeded in occupying, remains in dispute. A form of election was gone through; the King confirmed by oath an undertaking to observe the Constitution; and in the *corpus juris Hungarici* the record says “Ferdinandus in Regem Hungariae rite eligitur”; but the circumstances were sufficiently casual to make plausible a claim of conquest. The Habsburgs now held Western Hungary, and in Transylvania an independent principality was created with the consent of the Turks by John Sigismund Zapolya. From this time until 1699 there were three Hungarys—Austrian (or Royal) Hungary, Turkish Hungary, and Transylvanian Hungary.

*The Struggles for Emancipation and Toleration.*—The dismemberment of the country promoted the cause of the Reformation, which spread from Bohemia to Hungary. Calvinism obtained a great hold, especially among the gentry, who associated Catholicism with the Habsburgs. Transylvania, where the Prince was a Protestant, afforded strong support to the Magyar and Protestant cause. In 1608 the Emperor Mathias, under Transylvanian pressure, admitted the principle of toleration in Hungary by conceding to the nobility, the towns and the villages, but not to feudal vassals, the right to choose their own form of faith. At the



same time he undertook that the country should never be left without a Palatine. The subsequent choice of a Protestant as Palatine embodied the spirit of these two concessions. Feudal vassals only obtained religious liberty in 1657. Meanwhile Cardinal Pázmány, the Hungarian Primate (1616—1637), had initiated an extensive counter-Reformation, which affected rather the magnates and their serfs than the gentry, and owed some of its success to the skill with which Catholicism was presented as the genius of Hungarian nationalism. Leopold I (1657—1703) reverted to a policy of absolutism and religious persecution, with the result that in 1681 Emerich Tököli led a Magyar revolt in Northern Hungary, which was suppressed with cruelty. In 1687 Leopold coerced the Diet into making the monarchy, hitherto elective, hereditary in the male line of the Habsburgs, and into abolishing the right of resistance accorded by the Golden Bull. Discontent came to a head in Transylvania under Francis Rákóczy II in 1703. The Treaty of Szatmár (1711), which closed Rákóczy's revolt, secured Hungary for the time in her political and religious liberties. Meanwhile Prince Eugene and Louis of Baden brought the Turks to their knees; and at the Peace of Carlowitz (1699) Hungary was recovered for the Magyars; with the exception of the Banat of Temesvár, which remained in Turkish hands until 1718, and Croatia-Slavonia, which continued to be partially under military control.

*The Serbs and Germans of Southern Hungary.*—Two by-products of the Turkish wars proved to be of lasting importance. One was the plantation by Charles VI and the Empress Maria Theresa of the recovered districts of Southern Hungary with Germans from Swabia. The other was the immigration into Hungary from Turkey of a refugee Serb population, who were welcome to the Emperor Leopold, as they furnished his armies with excellent recruits. The refugees settled on the banks of



the Maros, in Syrmia and in Slavonia. They were promised religious toleration and something like autonomy. In 1723, however, the Hungarian Diet reduced their status to that of serfs tied to the soil. They learnt, therefore, to look to the Emperor and not to the local assembly for protection. The Imperial Government on its side was not slow to act or pose as the protector of minorities both racial and religious. Thus the creation, or rather extension, of the Military Frontier Province was designed not only to afford a bulwark against the Turks, but also to give the soldierly Serbs a more acceptable form of government. The administration was vested in a German military governor under imperial control. When in 1750 Maria Theresa agreed to the Hungarian demand for the reincorporation in the government of Hungary of the region between the Tisza (Theiss) and the Maros, which now forms the counties of Temes, Krassó, and Torontál, a hundred thousand Serbs migrated to Russia.

*The Reign of Joseph II (1780—1790).*—Joseph II's symmetrical system of government was peculiarly calculated to offend the susceptibilities of the Hungarians. His attempt to substitute German for Latin as the official language was keenly resented, and provoked the Magyar literary movement. His attack upon privilege, which effected the abolition of serfdom and the introduction of peasant proprietorship, aimed at more than was feasible; and the attempt to enforce uniformity by the suppression of the counties, the division of the country into ten circles (*Kreise*), and the rigorous application to recruiting of a census provoked fierce resentment, which was increased by the removal of the crown of St. Stephen to Vienna. Just before his death the Emperor was compelled to rescind his reforming ordinances, except those partially emancipating the peasants and re-establishing the religious toleration which had lost ground during the Austro-Prussian wars. His brother and successor, Leopold II, one of the wisest of the Habsburgs, pursued a liberal and conciliatory

policy. The constitution was reaffirmed at the Diet of 1790—1. Hungary was to be administered "according to its own laws and customs, and not after the manner of the other provinces," that is, by collaboration between the Sovereign and the National Assembly. The King, in order to obtain his constitutional rights, must be crowned, and the right of taxation was to be vested in the Diet, which was to be assembled every three years.

*The National Movement.*—The Hungarians, in spite of Napoleon's calculated appeals to their national sentiment, held to their Sovereign during the Napoleonic Wars. It was not until later that the new ideas began to penetrate the country. The Diets of 1825, 1833, and 1843 have an important place in Hungarian history. It was there that Paul Nagy and Francis Deák made their mark by vindicating the liberties of the country against the absolutist tendencies of the Emperor Francis I (1792—1835). The traditional Hungarian rights over territories such as Dalmatia, which by the extinction of the Venetian Republic had fallen into the hands of the Emperor, were ineffectively asserted, and, which was much more important, the Magyar tongue was forced into official use in parliamentary debates. In 1830 the knowledge of Magyar became a compulsory qualification for an advocate's diploma or a public post, and in 1843 Magyar was declared to be the exclusive language of the Government and Legislature. The artistic and literary movement which attended the Nationalist agitation and gave birth to a national theatre and the Hungarian Academy was, in fact, an extremely important factor in promoting the national cause; and this epoch is reckoned the Augustan age of Hungary. The literary advocacy of liberal economic doctrine by Count Stephen Széchenyi was especially influential. As a result of such efforts the peasants were freed in 1833 from feudal jurisdiction and arrest, and placed in a position to buy their holdings or transfer their labour. First steps towards equality of taxation were also taken.

*The Revolution and Laws of 1848.*—The National Movement strengthened under the influence of Deák and Kossuth during the years that followed. In the Diet of 1840 the Liberals secured the official use of Magyar in financial, ecclesiastical, and royal concerns. Meanwhile the protection accorded by Austria to the Croatsians, and generally to the Slav dependents of Hungary, coupled with an Austrian attempt to place imperial nominees at the head of the counties, widened the breach between the Austrian Government and the Hungarian Nationalists. Wesselényi, one of the group of Hungarian aristocratic Liberals, was advocating in 1843 a federal union with five groups, consisting of : (1) the German provinces in the west, including Carinthia and Carniola, in which the Slavs were to obtain the same privileges as the Transylvanian Saxons; (2) the Adriatic provinces; (3) Hungary and the parts annexed; (4) Galicia; (5) Bohemia and Moravia. The Paris Revolution of February 1848 found Kossuth ready. The Hungarian Diet was sitting at Pressburg, and resolutions in favour of popular education, religious equality, liberty of the press, trial by jury, annual parliaments, and the suppression of feudal dues and privileges were carried. A demonstration at Pesth enforced the Pressburg decisions. The Emperor-King (Ferdinand V) yielded. A Magyar Ministry, with Batthyány as Premier, Kossuth, Deák, and Eötvös as Ministers of Finance, Justice, and Public Instruction, was formed by the Palatine. Deák's moderation and sagacity were admittedly of the utmost importance in shaping the new constitution. The *Grundrechte* of the laws of 1848 were the responsibility of Ministers, the abolition of feudal servitudes, the extension of taxation to all classes and of the suffrage for the Diet from the nobility to every Hungarian twenty years of age and possessed of real property of the value of £30 in towns, or comprising some ten acres in the country. Other features were the double-chamber system, annual diets, Pesth as the seat of government, and liberty of the press. Kossuth further



insisted upon the transfer of the control of the army from the Imperial to the Hungarian Government—a measure in which Deák rightly detected the seed of future trouble.

The Magyars gloried in their own national feeling, but disdained that of others. Simultaneous demands for fuller national autonomy on the part of the Croats and for national recognition on that of the Rumanians of Transylvania incensed them. They refused the claims of the Rumanians, only to find themselves at war with the Serbs and Croats as well. The Emperor, no friend to Magyar independence, was gradually drawn into the quarrel on the side of the Slavs. An imperial constitution was framed in March 1849, which contemplated the separation from Hungary of Croatia, Slavonia, and Transylvania, and the constitution of a federal empire. The Palatine then withdrew from Hungary; the deposition of the Habsburgs and a declaration of independence were solemnly proclaimed by the Magyars; and a committee of defence was formed under Kossuth, who became Governor-President. The Magyars had challenged at once the principle of monarchy, the Court at Vienna, and the non-Magyar races of Hungary. Russia united her forces to the Imperial Austrian army and the Croatian levies. The Magyars were defeated; Görgei capitulated at Világos; Kossuth fled; Batthyány was shot. The racial conflict had been marked by outrages on the part of most of the races concerned, but amongst the excesses the maltreatment of the Slovaks by the Magyars,<sup>1</sup> who were intent on suppressing Slav nationalism, appears the most inexcusable.

In the years that followed the collapse of the rebellion, Deák maintained an opposition on constitutional lines to the Austrian centralising policy. Arguing that national independence and autonomy were essential to the political life of Hungary, he

<sup>1</sup> See on this subject Seton-Watson's *Racial Problems in Hungary*, p. 100.



declined to surrender these rights by sending deputies to the Imperial Parliament at Vienna, which Schmerling had created by the Patent of February 1861. The defeat of Austria in 1866 at the hands of Prussia gave him his opportunity. Beust, who had been Foreign Minister to the King of Saxony, and who was totally devoid of Slav sympathies, had been charged after that disaster with the direction of Austrian affairs. He was willing to concede what Deák required, because he believed that in Austria German interests could only be protected by an alliance with the Magyars. "Keep your hordes, and we will keep ours," was the phrase in which he is said to have defined to Deák the relations of the two dominant races towards the Slavs. The result was the *Ausgleich* of 1867, under which the Magyars received exceptional treatment denied by the Austrian Government to the Czechs, and by the Magyars themselves to the Slovaks, the Rumanians, and even to the Croats. The Compromise was, in short, a compact between German and Magyar based on the principle of racial inequality.

*The Ausgleich of 1867.*—The provisions of the Ausgleich have been dealt with in detail elsewhere (see above, p. 8). It is important to notice, however, that the assent of Hungary to it is based upon the maintenance of the Hungarian constitution and of constitutional government in Austria. In regard to foreign policy, the effect of the Ausgleich was to increase Hungarian influence in the Dual Monarchy. As "an instrument of common and united defence" foreign affairs were entrusted to a common Foreign Minister; in so far as they lie outside this sphere Hungary can theoretically negotiate separately with foreign Powers, though commercial matters have been rather illogically placed in the hands of the common Foreign Minister. Hungary retains, therefore, the right to ratify treaties; and these, so far as Hungary is concerned, are embodied in a separate law (e.g., the Treaty of Berlin). As Emperor of Austria, the Sovereign can control foreign affairs; as

King of Hungary, he is controlled by the Hungarian Diet.

### DOMESTIC HISTORY SINCE 1867

*The Law of Nationalities.*—The subject-races of Hungary are the Rumanians, the Serbs, the Slovaks, the Ruthenians, and the Germans. The Ausgleich constituted for Hungary a charter of Magyar supremacy; and an attempt to assimilate the non-Magyar races was its obvious corollary. Two methods of accomplishing this were possible—the coercive and the persuasive. The Andrassy Ministry of 1867, which had Eötvös, the disciple of Deák, as its Minister of Education and Religion, embodied the latter principle in the Law of Nationalities of 1868.<sup>1</sup> At the basis of the Act, indeed, was the belief that Hungarian national unity could only be maintained by the predominance of one language, and that this language must be Magyar; but Eötvös, convinced that in any competition Magyar would win on its intrinsic merits, endeavoured to give fair play to the culture of the other Hungarian nationalities, subject to these conditions. Under the Law, Magyar is recognised as the official language, and is required in the Diet. In the local assemblies or jurisdictions, however, whilst it remains the official means of communication, some other tongue, acceptable, at any rate, to one-fifth of the members, may be used collaterally in the minutes; and in debate every member is permitted to employ his own language. In legal proceedings similar principles were applied. Magyar was to prevail exclusively in the upper courts. In communal courts a party was given the right to use his own language; and in the district courts he might use that of the minutes of his communal records. The judge was to see that the more important documents used were translated where this was necessary; and other obvious facilities were afforded for the better hearing of a case. In churches

<sup>1</sup> For text see Appendix II, p. 115.

and in ecclesiastical concerns generally, the congregations enjoyed complete freedom of choice in the matter of language; in church schools their rights in this respect were modified by the Education Act. State schools were placed under the control of the Minister of Education, but he was expected to provide for the instruction of children of the different races, where their numbers were sufficient, in their own tongue. Lectures at the National University were to be given in Magyar, but chairs were to be set up for the study of the language and the literature of other nationalities. Much depended on § 27 of the law, which prescribed the appointment to administrative and judicial offices, and notably to that of High Sheriff, of persons belonging to the nationalities locally interested, "so far as possible."

The application of this and other provisions of the law has, according to Dr. Seton-Watson (*Racial Problems in Hungary*, pp. 149—159), been grossly defective. In counties, for example, where Slovaks and Rumanians are in a great majority, no Slovak or Rumanian has for many years past been appointed to fill the post of High Sheriff, which was not the case before the union with Hungary. Again, in 90 per cent. of the State elementary schools, and in all the State secondary schools (*gymnasias*), except that of Fiume, Magyar is exclusively employed.

*Forcible Magyarisation.*—The spirit of Deák, which inspired the Law of Nationalities, was sympathetic, and stands in violent contrast to that of Coloman Tisza, who in 1875, after Deák's death, became the head of a strong Magyar Government. His followers, among whom some of Deák's former supporters were to be found, constituted the new Liberal Party, and justified their title to some extent by reforming the Upper Chamber in 1885. Magyar influences, however, predominated. These were established upon a corrupt but effective electoral law, and were manifested in racial policy in general, and in particular by the Education Acts of 1879 and 1883, which made the Magyar lan-



guage a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools respectively. Tisza's forcible administration lasted fifteen years, and fell only because it trenched upon Magyar sentiment by forcing through a Law of National Defence which required Hungarian officers to pass an examination in German, on the ground of the necessity of a common language to the proper command of an army. His fall brought the Clericals momentarily into power; but secularism found its exponents in Dr. Wekerlé, who became Minister-President in 1892, and subsequently in Bánffy, who succeeded him in 1895. Under their administrations civil marriage was legalised and the registers were placed in lay hands; the effect being not merely to deprive the Catholic Church of opportunities of propaganda, but to restrict the racial activities of the Slav and Rumanian priests which had been carried on under cover of the functions of registration. Bánffy made no secret of his policy of Magyarisation, declaring for a Magyar unitary state founded "on the most extreme Chauvinist lines." The methods used in suppressing the subject-races of Hungary were various. A nationalities section, charged with the study of the political activities of the subject-races at home and abroad and with the control of their press, was added to the Premier's department. The elections of 1896 were conducted under the supervision of the military and police authorities, and freedom of assembly and speech severely restricted. By a circular of 1898 from the Ministry of the Interior pressure was brought to bear upon Government officials to take Magyar names. In the vote for the elementary schools it was made a condition that Magyar should be the sole language of instruction.

The threatened races, or at least the Rumanian, Slovak, and Serb members of them, had meanwhile drawn up their programme of defence. Professing loyalty to the Sovereign, and taking their stand upon the Law of Nationalities, they demanded, besides freedom of speech and association, universal and secret



suffrage and the appointment of Ministers charged with the concerns of the different nationalities on the Croatian model.

*The Crisis of 1904-5.*—Bánffy, whose strong but unconciliatory policy as Minister-President had raised a formidable opposition, left office in 1899 upon the commercial *Ausgleich* issue. The Government of his successor, Széll, was wrecked in 1903 on the military problem. The Opposition, which possessed a large majority in Parliament, then made the use of the Magyar language for the word of command in the Hungarian army a condition of taking office. The King refused to give way, and in 1905 put in power a Cabinet of officials, with Baron Főjerváry at their head. The Opposition declined to recognise a Government without a majority, loudly declaimed against the violence done to the constitution, and made the transaction of parliamentary business impossible. It was in these circumstances that the King confronted the Opposition with the menace of the subject-races. Josef Kristóffy, the Minister of the Interior, foreshadowed a measure of universal suffrage and secret voting. The Opposition leaders took alarm. An understanding was reached between them and the Crown. It was agreed that Dr. Wekerlé should take office, that the army question should be shelved for two years, and that in the meanwhile a measure of universal suffrage should be introduced.

*The Wekerlé Ministry.*—The new Government was of so comprehensive a character as to eliminate all opposition. The Party of Independence, which had itself alone a majority in the Chamber, was represented by Count Albert Apponyi and Ferencz Kossuth; the Constitutional Party by Dr. Wekerlé and Count Julius Andrassy, and the Catholic People's Party by Count Aladár Zichy. To Count Julius Andrassy, as Minister of the Interior, fell the duty of introducing the Suffrage Bill. The new scheme, though it more than doubled the electorate, was conceived on Conservative lines, consideration being given to property and educa-

tion. Every male Hungarian over twenty-four and able to read and write was to have a vote, subject to a twelve months' residential qualification, but the illiterate were reduced by a complicated process from the ranks of the direct to those of the indirect electors. The Radicals and the various subject-races alike took exception to a measure which was prejudicial to the objects of both. Shortly afterwards the burning question of the establishment of a separate state bank for Hungary at the termination of the concession to the Austro-Hungarian Bank was taken up by a section of the Independence Party under Justh, and produced a critical situation for the Ministry. Kossuth separated from Justh, and founded in conjunction with Apponyi the Independence 1848 Kossuth Party. With the Independence Party split in two, yet commanding a parliamentary majority, no Government could be stable.

*The Tisza Administrations.*—The problem was ultimately solved by the virtual resuscitation of the Liberal Party in 1910 under the title of the Munka or "National Work" Party. The leading personalities of the new Administration were the Emperor-King's friend, Count Khuen-Héderváry, as Minister-President, and Lukács as Finance Minister; but the Ministry owed much to the support of Count Stephen Tisza. In the corrupt election which followed, the Munka Party swept the country. The Magyar-Austrian issues took the first place in their programme. The Bank question was eventually shelved till 1917, when the Commercial Ausgleich was due to come up for consideration. Meanwhile the Austro-Hungarian Bank was required in theory to make cash payments for its notes, but a suspensory article removed the obligation in practice.

In regard to army matters, the obstruction of the Independence Party eventually produced the fall of the Government. The specific point at issue was the right of the King on his own initiative to call out the reserves, and to prolong the term of service of the troops already enlisted, in the event of Parliament requiring to provide

for a new contingent of recruits. Count Khuen-Héderváry was succeeded in April 1912 by Lukács. The change seems to have been the result of representations to the Archduke Franz Ferdinand by the German Emperor to the effect that, unless the Austro-Hungarian military establishment was reformed and increased, the Alliance would become unpopular in Germany.

In other respects the new Administration did not imply any considerable change of policy. Count Tisza still represented the power behind the Government; and a programme including the passage of the Army Bill and a conservative measure of suffrage reform, safeguarding the interests of education and Magyar supremacy, reflected his views. His election at this time to the Presidency of the Chamber of Deputies proved of great importance, in view of the continued obstructive tactics of the Opposition. On June 4 he initiated what was virtually a *coup d'état*. Appealing suddenly to the House to know whether they voted the Army Bill in general and in detail, he secured a majority for it by acclamation, and subsequently caused the turbulence of the dissentient minority to be repressed by forcible ejection. Efforts were made by the Opposition leaders to rouse public opinion against this procedure, but the country as a whole seems to have been tired of parliamentary obstruction. In the Chamber, however, tactics of the most violent kind were pursued by the minority; and the Premier retorted by introducing a Bill to establish a body of parliamentary police. The Government gained little advantage from their Electoral Reform Bill (introduced on December 31, 1912), with which the more advanced of their supporters were dissatisfied. The chief features of the Bill were: (i) an addition to the electorate of 600,000 voters; (ii) the abolition of plural voting; (iii) property, educational, occupational, and age qualifications for the suffrage; (iv) a secret ballot in towns possessing municipalities, and an open ballot in other districts. The main line of cleavage was clear. The Opposition desired a vote for every man over twenty-four able to

read and write, and having lived in a constituency for a year. The Government was intent on Conservatism and Magyar supremacy. They were able to carry their Bill, but not without certain concessions.

At this point a charge of misapplying public money for electioneering purposes was established against Lukács in the Désy libel case. Count Tisza, whose strength and incorruptibility gave him a strong hold upon the country, replaced him as Minister-President. On the initiative of Count Michael Károlyi, the Opposition thereupon began to close up its ranks; and the followers of Justh, Kossuth, and the Independent Free Lances became the "United Independence and Forty-Eight Party." Count Julius Andrássy, Count Tisza's other personal opponent, subsequently founded the National Constitutional Party. These two Opposition parties agreed in hatred of Tisza and of Tisza's coercive parliamentary standing orders, but differed on a practical question of policy; the Independence Party, unlike the National Constitutionalists, being unwilling to take office without reducing the relations of the two monarchies to a purely personal union through a common sovereign.

Count Tisza was in office when the Great War broke out. He enjoyed the King's confidence, and possessed a secure parliamentary majority. His fine intellect and cold, determined character, with its Calvinistic basis and its reputed integrity, promised a policy of a range and depth altogether outside the grasp of the average type of Austrian politician. His legislation in 1913 had included a provision for a large and increasing military establishment.



## II. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

### (1) RELIGIOUS

*The Catholic Church.*—Since 1848, when religious bodies were placed upon an equality, the Catholic Church has possessed little more privilege than that of precedence. The Roman Catholics in Hungary proper numbered 9,010,305 and the Greek Catholics 2,007,916 at the census of 1910.<sup>1</sup> The Primate of Hungary (Archbishop of Esztergom) is the constituting officer of the National Synod, which plays an exceptionally important part in the management of ecclesiastical affairs. The Sovereign, owing in part to his position as Apostolic King, enjoys very large powers in the creation of sees, in the appointment of the episcopate and the higher clergy, and in the administration of Church revenues; but the concurrence of the Pope, or of the Nuncio or Primate as the Papal representative, is, at least nominally, required.

The Greek Catholics (Uniats) of Hungary proper fall into two branches—the Ruthenes, who accepted the Papal Supremacy in 1595, and the Rumanians in Transylvania, who submitted in 1698.

*The Orthodox Church.*—The members of the Orthodox Church in Hungary proper, who numbered 2,333,979 at the census of 1910, are grouped under two metropolitans—a Serbian and a Rumanian—and enjoy autonomous rights, which are exercised through congresses. The Patriarch of Karlowicz is the head of the Eastern Serbian Church, and the Archbishop of Hermannstadt (Nagyszeben) of the Rumanian.

<sup>1</sup> For the figures for Croatia-Slavonia, see the special paper, No. 8 of this series.

*The Protestant Churches.*—Religious toleration in Hungary advanced by stages, which have been indicated. The free public exercise of religion dates from the edict of Joseph II in 1781.

The Reformed Churches of Hungary are two—the Lutheran and the Reformed Calvinist. (1) The Lutheran Church in 1910 contained some 1,306,384 members in Hungary proper. Its constitution, which was elaborated in the last decade of the nineteenth century, is episcopal and autonomous. There are parish, district, and diocesan assemblies. At the summit of the structure is a General Assembly, which is convoked by the King. The Lutheran Church in Northern Hungary contains Slovaks, Magyars, and Germans. It must be distinguished from the Saxon Lutheran Church of Transylvania, which is practically coterminous with the Saxon community there. (2) The Reformed Calvinist Church is composed almost wholly of Magyars, and has its centre at Debreczen. It contains 2,333,979 members. Hungary has also 74,275 Unitarians (all Magyars) and 911,227 Jews. The latter play a great, though in some ways obscure, part in the life of the country.

## (2) POLITICAL; FORM, CHARACTER, AND METHODS OF GOVERNMENT

The relations between Austria and Hungary and the system of common services under the *Ausgleich* of 1867 have been already described (*see* above, p. 8). There remains the important difference between the two partners, that in Austria the Sovereign divested himself of certain rights in favour of the people; whilst in Hungary the people divested themselves of certain rights in favour of the Sovereign. The King chooses the Prime Minister and appoints the members of the Cabinet on the proposal of the Prime Minister.

*Legislature.*—There are two Houses in Hungary—the Chamber of Magnates, containing 300 members, and

including Catholic, Orthodox, and Protestant ecclesiastics, hereditary peers, and some 75 or more other members, of whom about two-thirds are nominated by the King and one-third by the Chamber itself; and the Chamber of Deputies, which contains 453 members chosen for three years, inclusive of over 40 representatives of Croatia-Slavonia. The franchise is very complicated, and rests upon considerations of property, profession, and position. The King nominates the President of the Chamber of Magnates, but the Chamber of Deputies selects its own.

*Executive.*—The Hungarian Cabinet consists of nine Ministers appointed by the Sovereign—the Ministers of the Interior, Justice, Public Instruction, Commerce, Agriculture, Finance, Public Defence, Croatia-Slavonia, and a Minister attached to the Sovereign. The Minister-President is sometimes without portfolio, in which case he makes a tenth.

Local administration is carried on by the county assemblies, which consist of anything from 120 to 600 members. One half of these are elected under the parliamentary franchise; the rest consist of the persons paying the highest taxation and of county officials, who are members *ex officio*. The same system applies in the case of the communal assemblies. The powers of the local assemblies are very much curtailed by the control of the Minister of the Interior.

### (3) EDUCATIONAL

The educational system in Hungary has been mainly developed by the Churches, Catholic and Protestant, and is thought to have gained considerably from the rivalry between them. In modern times primary education has been the natural instrument of Magyar statesmen intent upon effecting a closer unity amongst the component elements of the State. The laws dealing with primary schools must be viewed in connection with the policy of Magyarisation, which has been dealt with above.

Under the Law of Nationalities of 1868 all citizens were to be able to obtain instruction in their mother-tongue up to the point where the higher academic course began. This provision (Section 17) has not been honoured, though it remains on the Statute Book. Meantime, by the Law of 1879, Magyar was to be taught in all primary schools; by the Law of 1891, kindergarten schools were established for children between the ages of three and six who stood in need of supervision and physical development, with the purpose, frankly admitted in a manual published by the Ministry of Public Instruction,<sup>1</sup> of furthering Magyar interests; and, by the Law of 1907, teachers were declared to be State officials, and their salaries fixed at a higher figure, which it was improbable that the denominational school authorities would be able to provide without State assistance. Under this last Act, in the event of a subvention being received from the State, a limited measure of State control follows. The principal effects of this are that the selection of teachers is controlled by the Minister of Education, and that compulsory instruction in the Magyar language has to be given in accordance with State regulations. Although this is calculated to interfere considerably with the autonomous rights guaranteed to denominational schools under the Law of 1868, primary education in Hungary remains in appearance largely in the hands of the Church. In 1905 the Roman Catholic Church schools amounted to 5,296, the Greek Catholic schools forming an additional 1,987. The Orthodox Church had 1,728 schools; the Calvinists, 1,917; the Lutherans, 1,331. As against these, schools maintained by the State numbered only 1,993. Attendance at school is obligatory on all children between the ages of 7 and 16; but daily attendance is only required up to the age of 11, and the requirements are not always enforced. In over 70 per cent. of the primary schools the language of instruction is Magyar. The Education Act of 1868

<sup>1</sup> *L'Enseignement en Hongrie*, p. 53.



provides further instruction in schools known as civic (*bürger*) and higher primary schools.

As regards the effect of the instruction, although, as Dr. Seton-Watson pointed out in 1908, the actual number of illiterates in the nation, which is approximately 8,000,000, appears to have rather increased during the last thirty years, the proportion has fallen. The illiterates are far more numerous among the subject-races than among the Germans and Magyars. According to such statistics as were available in 1907, 67 per cent. of the Germans and 61 per cent. of the Magyars, but only about 20 per cent. of the Rumanians and 14 per cent. of the Ruthenians, could both read and write.

Secondary education is effected through the *Gymnasia* and the *Realschulen*; the former based on the study of the classics and the latter upon that of modern languages. There are about 200 of these so-called middle schools. Some are state-supported, others are endowed and in the hands of the religious orders and bodies. The *Gymnasia*, of which there are 168, predominate considerably over the modern schools, of which there are 32. In the vast majority of the middle schools the Magyar language is used. Besides the middle schools there are special schools for the study of agriculture, viticulture, forestry, commerce, industry, and art.

Hungary possesses four universities—Budapest (founded in 1635), Kolozsvár (Klausenburg) (1872), Pozsony (Pressburg), and Debreczen (1912). The Croatian university of Zagráb (Agram) was founded in 1874. All are state-supported. The two first have faculties of medicine; the three first faculties of theology, law, and philosophy. Another institution which deserves mention is the Polytechnic School of Budapest, which gives instruction to students of engineering, architecture, &c.

There were reckoned to be 2,067 newspapers and journals in Hungary and Croatia in 1912, of which 1,550 were printed in Magyar.

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### MAPS.

For the geography of Hungary, see notes on maps in the books on *Slovakia* (No. 3), *Transylvania and the Banat* (No. 6), *Hungarian Ruthenia* (No. 7), of this series. For Hungarian ethnography, see note above, p. 28.

FOREIGN POLICY OF  
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY





# FOREIGN POLICY OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1718. Treaty of Passarowitz between Austria and Turkey.
- 1726. The Austro-Russian Entente.
- 1749. Kaunitz's Memorandum on Austrian Foreign Policy.
- 1756. The 'Diplomatic Revolution'—Austria and France allied against England and Prussia.
- 1772. The First 'Greek Project'.
- 1781. The Second 'Greek Project'.
- 1792. Retirement of Kaunitz.
- 1815. The Holy Alliance.
- 1838. Anglo-Austrian Agreement respecting shipping and commerce on the Danube and the Black Sea.
- 1848. The Revolution in Germany and Austria-Hungary. Accession of the Emperor Francis Joseph.
- 1850. The Conference of Olmütz.
- 1854. Defensive Alliance between Austria and Prussia in respect of their interests on the Danube. The Vienna Note.
- 1856. The Peace of Paris. The lower Danube is brought under the control of International Commissions.
- 1859. Peace of Villafranca by which Austria loses Lombardy to Sardinia.
- 1865. The Convention of Gastein.
- 1866. The Austro-Prussian War. Battle of Königgrätz. (August) Treaty of Prague with Prussia. (October) Treaty of Vienna, under which Austria surrenders to Italy Venetia and the Quadrilateral.
- 1870. The Franco-Prussian War.
- 1872. The *Dreikaiserbündniss*.
- 1873. The Austro-Russian 'Arrangement' at Schönbrunn.
- 1876. The Meeting at Reichstadt between the Russian and Austrian Emperors.
- 1878. The Berlin Congress. Austria is authorized to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- 1879. The Austro-German Alliance, which becomes in
- 1882. The Triple Alliance.

- 1884. The First Reinsurance Treaty (Germany, Russia, and possibly Austria).
- 1885. Bulgaria annexes Eastern Rumelia.
- 1887. The Secret Reinsurance Treaty (Germany and Russia).
- 1888. Accession of the German Emperor, Wilhelm II.
- 1890. Fall of Bismarck.
- 1891. The Franco-Russian Alliance.
- 1897. Austro-Russian Agreement, defining spheres of influence in the Balkans.
- 1903. The Muerzsteg Programme.
- 1905-6. The Conference of Algeciras.
- 1908. (September 16) The Buchlau meeting between Isvolsky and Aehrenthal. (October 6) Bulgaria proclaimed an independent kingdom. (October 7) Annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- 1912 (October). The Balkan League declares war on Turkey. The Peace of Lausanne between Turkey and Italy.
- 1912 (December). The Ambassadors' Conference at London

#### AUSTRIAN FOREIGN MINISTERS IN THE NINETEENTH AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES

- 1792-1801. Baron Thugut.
- 1801-5. Count Cobenzl.
- 1806-9. Count Stadion.
- 1809-48. Prince von Metternich-Winneburg.
- 1848-52. Prince Schwarzenberg.
- 1852-9. Count Buol-Schauenstein.
- 1859-64. Count Rechberg.
- 1864-6. Count Mensdorff-Pouilly.
- 1866-71. Count Beust.
- 1871-9. Count Andrassy.
- 1879-81. Herr Haymerle.
- 1881-95. Count Kalnoky.
- 1895-1906. Count Goluchowski
- 1906-12. Baron Aehrenthal.
- 1912-14. Count Berchtold.

#### (1) LEADING MOTIVES IN THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE HABSBURGS

THREE leading motives after the close of the Middle Ages powerfully influenced the foreign policy of the Austrian Habsburgs: the recovery of European soil from the Turks; the hegemony of the Holy Roman Empire or of its later territorial equivalents, the states

of Germany and Italy ; and the defence of the *ancien régime*, or at least of its legitimist traditions, against the Revolution with its liberal and nationalist conception of the State. A common interest in such causes tended of course to bring the Habsburg Empire into close relationship with the Papacy. The Court of Vienna became at once the champion of Christendom against the Infidel, the focus of Catholicism among the Germanic peoples, and, after the fall of Charles X of France, the last embodiment of the principle of the Altar and the Throne amongst the greater Powers of Europe. But it would be difficult to show that these romantic considerations in themselves ever seriously deflected Austrian policy from the pursuit of its obvious mundane interests. The Emperor of Austria, indeed, never consented to visit a king of Italy in Rome ; but at the Congress of Vienna Metternich had been ready enough to deprive the Papacy of the Legations (Bologna, Ferrara, and Ravenna) ; and it was upon France, not upon Austria, that the Pope depended, in the critical years between 1860 and 1870, for the maintenance of the temporal power. And it might probably be true to say that during the nineteenth century the desire to dominate the Danube and, later, the compulsion of the Mittel-Europa idea affected the conduct of the Ballplatz as powerfully as any of the traditional conceptions. These, however, remained, and, being directly in conflict with the spirit of nationality, progressively weakened the hands of Austrian diplomacy in proportion as nationalist theories took possession of the Austrian subject races. Thus of the three great Austrian Foreign Ministers of the nineteenth century, Metternich may be said to be dominant in European politics, Andrassy forcible, but Aehrenthal no more than effective.

## (2) THE BASIS OF AUSTRIAN FOREIGN POLICY

(a) *In the East*.—The modern history of Austrian foreign policy properly begins in the earlier half of the eighteenth century, when the rise of Russia and



Prussia produced a new situation both in the East and West of Europe. In the East the Treaty of Passarowitz (1718), which has been described as 'the apogee of the territorial extension of the House of Austria', finally concluded the struggle for supremacy between Turk and Christian. The military issue was decided; Turkey took its place upon a sick-bed; and in the Near East a period of diplomacy diversified by war succeeded to a period of war diversified by diplomacy. The new epoch was inaugurated in 1726 by an understanding, directed against the Turks, between Austria and Russia, which developed into a tradition, though by no means an unbroken tradition, of Austrian policy. Austria had been quick to see that Russia, thanks to Peter the Great, had become a state of the first magnitude; that the two Powers in conjunction could bring irresistible pressure to bear upon the Porte; and that it was to their mutual advantage to agree beforehand upon a distribution of the Turkish spoils, which might otherwise form the subject of dispute. The so-called Greek Project of 1772, which was further elaborated in 1781 by the Emperor Joseph II, exhibits this policy in its most definite form. Russia was to have Moldavia, Wallachia, Bulgaria, Rumelia, and Thrace; while Austria was to take Serbia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. In the Project of 1781 the notion of a Greek empire under a Russian prince with its capital at Constantinople was balanced by that of an Austria comprising Little Wallachia so far as Olt (Aluta), Dalmatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Widin, Orsova, and Belgrade. It ought not to escape notice that, about the same time, the Partitions of Poland (1772-95) drew Austria into the unholy association with Russia and Prussia which foreshadowed the Holy Alliance and the League of the Three Emperors. From the consequences of the commitments thus contracted Austria never afterwards escaped. She had more conscience than her confederates. 'Elle pleurait mais elle prenait toujours' might have been said of her as well as of her ruler. Her policy in regard to her subject

racés never recovered from the taint of the original acquisitive selfishness which inspired it.

(b) *In the West*.—The modern history of Austrian foreign policy in the West can be more precisely dated. The seizure of Silesia by Prussia and the insufficiency of the English alliance to enable Austria to recover it were the direct cause of the famous memorandum of Kaunitz, which inaugurated the so-called ‘ diplomatic revolution ’ of 1756 and the Franco-Austrian alliance. Kaunitz did not contest the view of the old school of Austrian diplomatists that England, Holland, Russia, and Saxony were the natural friends, Prussia, France, and Turkey the natural foes, of Austria-Hungary ; but he maintained that France alone could give the requisite assistance against Prussia. The significance of his memorandum was that it marked down Prussia as the greatest foe of his country ; and in fact during the next hundred years Austria was engaged in a more or less lively struggle with her rival.

### (3) THE NAPOLEONIC INTERLUDE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE (1813–48)

In this conflict the Napoleonic wars form an interlude, though an interlude in which the events of 1805–6 show the existence of a fatal underlying jealousy, which only the complete disasters of Austerlitz and Jena could overcome. The two Powers were forced into temporary alliance until Napoleon was overthrown ; but at the Congress of Vienna their hostility became once more apparent in regard to the fate of Saxony, which Prussia wished to swallow, and whose independent existence England and France united with Austria to maintain. Austrian territory and Austrian prestige were advanced by the issue of the Congress ; but the domination of northern Italy and the championship of the cause of the *ancien régime*, which Metternich left to his country, was a *damnosa haereditas*. Austrian interests in Italy proved a fatal stumbling-block in the middle of the nineteenth century to the understanding

with France which alone could have held Prussia in check ; while the legitimist or dynastic theory of the State tended to force the Dual Monarchy into dependence upon the neighbouring autocracies of Prussia and Russia, and ultimately into a conflict with her own numerous racial groups. The Holy Alliance, formed in August 1815 between the Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia, theoretically in order to promote peace and to establish Christian principles in international as well as domestic relations, and the Quadruple Alliance between Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, formed in November 1815 against any renewal of French aggression, gave birth to a Concert of Europe, whose first care was the suppression of revolutionary tendencies. Thus at Laibach in 1820, and at Verona in 1822, the Powers interested agreed to intervene to protect the sovereigns of Naples and Spain from their subjects ; and in 1849 the appearance of Russian armies on Hungarian soil to suppress the Magyar rebellion furnished a fresh demonstration of governmental solidarity.

#### (4) THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 AND ITS CONSEQUENCES IN REGARD TO FOREIGN POLICY

The Revolution of 1848, however, which thus threw Austria upon the support of Russia, intensified her acute rivalry with Prussia in Germany, where the issue ultimately depended upon which of the two Conservative Governments at Berlin and Vienna would be the first to take its courage in both hands and lead the nationalist movement among the German peoples. The revolutionary assembly, which met at Frankfort to draw up a new Constitution for Germany, was confronted with the vital question whether Austria was to remain inside the Germanic Confederation or not. The division of opinion on this point gave birth to the Great German and Little German parties. The former, who were recruited amongst the Austrian, Bavarian, and South German deputies, were jealous of



Prussian domination, and had the support of the German democrats on this account. Owing probably to the failure of Schwarzenberg (who had succeeded Metternich in the management of foreign affairs) to place himself at the head of the German national movement, the Little Germans got the better of their opponents; and the Imperial crown of an hereditary but limited monarchy was offered to the King of Prussia in April 1849. Frederick William IV would not consent so far to violate the principles of the Holy Alliance as to accept the gifts of the Revolution; but in May he started a scheme of his own, under which Prussia was to have the presidency of a federal college to the complete exclusion of Austria from the intended German 'Union'. Hanover and Saxony for a time sustained this project, forming with Prussia the *Dreikönigsbund*; but, when Bavaria withdrew her support, the other kingdoms followed. Prussia then made a bid for popular sympathy by the issue of a new Constitution; and at one moment, after a constitutional conflict had arisen in Hesse-Cassel, it looked as if, with the assistance of the German Liberals, she would control a 'Union' of the smaller States in opposition to Austria and the greater monarchies. But Prussian statesmen were more conservative and more cautious than the Prussian King; and in the end Prussia fell back into the orbit of the Holy Alliance. At the Conference of Olmütz (1850) between Manteuffel and Schwarzenberg, representing Prussia and Austria respectively, the former suffered a severe diplomatic defeat at the hands of the latter. The 'Union' was dissolved, and, with the approval of the Russian Emperor, the loose and ineffective German Constitution of 1815 was restored.

But diplomacy, however dexterous, could not maintain the old state of things; and the inability of Austria to adapt her foreign policy to new conditions became increasingly apparent during the administrations of Buol and Beust, while Bismarck was completely alive to the value of opportunism. There can be no doubt



that the situation called for a revival of the combination between Austria and France against Prussia ; but differences about Italy, where Napoleon III's nationalist policy came into direct conflict with the dynastic policy of Austria, prevented this *rapprochement*. The negotiations which preceded the Crimean War, when the French were willing to see the transfer to Austria of the Danubian Principalities in exchange for the cession of Lombardy to Sardinia, marked the definite point of cleavage ; and the War of 1859 widened the breach, with the result that in the critical hours of 1866 and 1870 each Power in turn failed to come to the assistance of the other, and Prussia was able to deal with her two rivals separately.

#### (5) THE CONFLICT WITH PRUSSIA IN GERMANY

Meanwhile Austria continued more and more to lose ground in Germany, where her independent agreements with Prussia about Schleswig-Holstein and Hesse-Cassel offended the minor States. A state of unstable equilibrium continued until 1861, when under Schmerling's influence the Austrian Emperor advanced what proved to be an abortive project of federal reform. In another project of 1863 Schmerling designed the creation of a directorate of five princes, with the Emperor and his successors as hereditary presidents. Austria thus hoped to secure through the presidency the use of the military forces of the Confederation for the protection of the Austrian dominions outside the Confederation, and to this end proposed that, in the event of war between a member of the Confederation having exterior possessions and an alien State, the confederate army should be used on the orders of a majority of the directorate. Prussia took advantage of the disclosure to wreck the scheme. In 1865 the second phase of the Schleswig-Holstein question gave Prussia her opportunity of ousting Austria from the Confederation. Bismarck was more than a match for both Rechberg, whose Prussian sympathies had embarrassed Schmerling's

federal schemes, and for Mensdorff, who had succeeded him as Austrian Foreign Minister in 1864. At the Convention of Gastein (1865) the Austrian Government was induced to agree that Austria and Prussia should deal with the Duchies by a policy of joint occupation, Austria occupying Holstein and Prussia Schleswig. When Austria subsequently attempted to associate herself with the German Confederation in pressing the candidature of the Duke of Augustenburg to the throne of the Duchies, her action was represented by Prussia, who intended to retain possession of the occupied country, as a violation of the agreement at Gastein. War followed. Austria had no powerful allies. Her sympathetic attitude towards the Poles under Russian tyranny had separated her from Russia; and Napoleon III fancied, as Bismarck hoped, that a policy of neutrality would enable him to extract valuable pickings out of the struggle between the two German Powers, of whom he wrongly supposed Austria to be the stronger. The lesser rulers of Germany equally misjudged the situation. Though the fact that the Austrian policy in the affair of the Duchies was also the policy of the Confederation compelled them to support Austria, they really desired peace and independence from Austria and Prussia alike; and so, when it came to war, the aid they gave was below their ability. In the event Austria was decisively defeated at Königgrätz. Bismarck, recognizing that the German element in Austria would, if added to Prussia, have weakened the forces of Protestantism, while in Austria it strengthened the opposition to the Slavs, was careful to effect his purpose of expelling Austria from the German Confederation without taking any Austrian territory for Prussia. The Treaty of Prague (1866) made Prussia the head of a North German Confederation; and the gradual absorption of the Southern States within the German Empire, which was completed in 1871, was not seriously disturbed by the clever but ineffective diplomacy of Beust, the Saxon minister whom the

Austrian Emperor placed at the head of foreign affairs. A month or two later the Austrian Government renounced its claim to all but a strategic frontier on the south by the cession of Venetia and the Quadrilateral to Italy.

#### (6) *THE Drang nach Osten*

It was now apparent that Austria, if she was to obtain any extension of influence, must expand eastwards ; and it was naturally Bismarck's policy to give her every assistance in a direction where success would tend to remove the memory of defeat in the west. The possibilities of expansion, if Albania be excluded, lay along the Danube and through Bosnia and Herzegovina ; the ultimate objectives were respectively the Black Sea and Salonika. The complexion of the former project was commercial, of the latter political. The ambition of Austria to reach the sea by a route over which she had undisputed control was doubtless stimulated by the rise of Italy and the desire of that Power to dominate the Adriatic.

#### (a) *The Black Sea Project*

The question of international rivers had received attention at the Congress of Vienna, where the principle that they should be free from burdens and open to all had been affirmed ; but, as Turkey was not held to be a member of the community of European nations, the Danube was not immediately affected. As trade developed, however, the position in the Black Sea, whence Austrian merchandise was fetched in British bottoms, became increasingly interesting to Austria and Great Britain ; and in 1838 these Powers concluded an agreement according mutual advantages to their Danubian and Black Sea shipping and commerce. In 1840 a treaty with Russia, which by the Treaty of Adrianople (1829) between Russia and Turkey had extended its frontier from the Kilia to the St. George mouth of the Danube, gave Austria the right of free navigation to



the Black Sea ; but in practice Russia failed to afford the facilities promised to a dangerous commercial rival, and it was not until the Crimean War that Austria saw her way to realize her objects.

The menace to the German Confederation involved in the occupation by Russia of the territories on the lower Danube became the basis of the defensive alliance between Austria and Prussia in April 1854 ; and the substitution of an international for a Russian protectorate of the Danubian provinces and the freedom of the navigation of the Danube form two of the four points in the Vienna Note of August 1854, which embodied the views of England, France, and Austria. The negotiation, however, failed owing to further demands by Turkey and their refusal by Russia ; and the Crimean War ensued. Austria, under Buol's guidance, kept clear of the fighting, but secured her aims at the Congress ; thus, as Friedjung thinks, sacrificing Russian friendship for domination over the lower Danube. Russia admitted the independence of the Danubian Principalities under Turkish suzerainty, and restored the strip of territory between the Kilia and St. George mouths of the Danube to Turkey ; while the cession of a strip of Bessarabia to Moldavia deprived her of her hold upon even the northern bank of that river. The Treaty of Paris formally included the Danube under the Act of the Vienna Congress relating to international rivers, and set up a European and a Riverain Commission to deal with the problems involved. The European Commission, which was intended to be only temporary, represented the greater Powers of Europe—Austria, Prussia, France, Great Britain, Russia, Sardinia, and Turkey, and was charged with dredging and constructive operations at the mouths of the river. The Riverain Commission, on the board of which sat representatives of Austria, Bavaria, Württemberg, and Turkey, besides commissioners, approved by the Porte, from Serbia, Wallachia, and Moldavia, was entrusted with the regulation of police matters, the abolition of local impositions inconsistent with the free navigation of the river, the



construction of works required above the river mouths, and ultimately, after the intended dissolution of the European Commission, with the continuation of its work.

Austria, thwarted in the attempt to reserve all the rights over the upper part of the river to the Riverain Powers, and apprehensive of the effect upon her interests of European interference, attempted to play off the one Commission against the other. At her instigation the Riverain Commission carried in 1857 a resolution excluding vessels not belonging to the Riverain Powers from 'interior' navigation (i.e. navigation from river-port to river-port) while allowing to non-Riverain Powers freedom of navigation in respect of sea-going vessels. At the same time the Riverain Powers reserved to themselves the right to levy dues for river improvements and to prohibit the passage of specified commodities. The Powers rejected the resolution; and the effect of the Austrian move was to excite the suspicion of the Greater Powers and to produce a prolongation of the life of the European Commission. By the Treaty of Berlin (1878) the plenary powers of that Commission were extended as far as Galatz; and authority was entrusted to it, in conjunction with delegates from the Riverain States, to elaborate and harmonize the navigation and police regulations for the region between Galatz and the Iron Gates so as to make them correspond with those in force between Galatz and the mouths. Austrian sympathies induced an *ad hoc* committee of the Commission to propose that these latter functions should be entrusted to a new Commission of the Riverain Powers presided over by an Austrian delegate. The Rumanian Government strongly objected to the constitution of this Commission, but Austria, to whom Germany lent her full support,<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Speaking in the Reichstag on February 19, 1878, Bismarck indicated the free navigation of the Danube by Germans as the greatest of German interests in the East. But compare his statement on July 4, 1878, at the Berlin Congress, *British and Foreign State Papers*, vol. lxix, p. 1008.

threatened to oppose the prolongation of the existence of the European Commission, unless the proposed Mixed Commission were created. The special and dominant interest of Austria in the control of the River Danube was emphatically asserted by Baron de Haan, the Austrian Commissioner; and the British proposal to allow an appeal in every case from the Mixed to the European Commission was effectively opposed by the Central Powers. Russia, whose interests lay at the mouths, was, perhaps, as anxious to check the influence of the European Commission in this direction as to promote it higher up where it would be inconvenient to Austria. It was in these circumstances that M. Barrère, the French delegate, proposed that to the Austrian President and the representatives of the three Riverain Powers—Serbia, Bulgaria, and Rumania—a member of the European Commission, selected in rotation and changed every six months, should be added. By this means the Austrian President was deprived of a casting vote, which under the original project would have been his. Whether Austria, whose territory did not abut on the Danube between the Iron Gates and Galatz, had any right to a seat on the Mixed Commission, was a point open to question. M. Barrère's compromise was accepted, but was not carried into effect. The execution of the works designed to clear away the obstacles presented to navigation by the Iron Gates and the cataracts was committed to the Austro-Hungarian Government; and the States adjoining this part of the river were required to afford facilities.

It is convenient to complete the sketch of the Danubian policy of Austria at once.<sup>1</sup> The prolongation of the existence of the European Commission came up for discussion again in 1883, when Lord Granville presided over a Conference in London, from whose decisions, however, Rumania and Serbia were excluded, while Bulgaria obtained only such representation as her suzerain, Turkey, chose to give her. The life of

<sup>1</sup> See the article *Danube* in the *Encyclop. Brit.* Also the books on *Rumania* (No. 23) and *International Rivers* (No. 151) of this series.

the European Commission was extended for twenty-one years. England secured the extension of the region under the Commission's control as far as Braila; Russia procured full control over the Oksakov mouth, and the right to administer the left bank of the Kilia mouth in accordance with the regulations prevailing at the Sulina mouth; while Austria saved the Mixed by admitting its dependence upon the European Commission. In the attempt to set the Mixed Commission on foot the hostility between the Austrian and Rumanian Governments, however, developed so considerably as gravely to prejudice the working of the scheme; and the efforts of Count Aehrenthal to attract the Serbian and Bulgarian Commissioners into a closer alliance appear to have met with little success. The actual administration of the region between Moldova and Turnu-Severin was entrusted by the Imperial to the Hungarian Government, which, in spite of adverse criticism from the Vienna Chamber of Commerce, levied unauthorized and discriminative dues on the cargoes of ships passing through Kazan and the Iron Gates, as well as the lawful charges on the ships themselves, and put in force, without asking the consent of the Riverain Powers, certain pilotage and police regulations.

The position, then, in 1914 was that Austria and Russia alike were jealous of the European Commission; that each had secured an influence more or less independent of it upon the Danube; and that the Commission was in practice acting as a buffer between their rival ambitions. It was also true that the considerable diplomatic successes attained by Austria had depended upon the support of Germany, which had thus placed its ally under an obligation.

(b) *The Salonika Project: the Occupation of Bosnia-Herzegovina*

In the advance towards Salonika, which resulted first in the occupation and ultimately in the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the German factor was more



conspicuous and more decisive. The visits of the Emperor William I to Salzburg in 1871 and of the Emperor Francis Joseph to Berlin in 1872 were the intimation of a *rapprochement* between the Central Powers, which strengthened the hands of Austria in the Balkans. Russia was naturally sympathetic with states in which the monarchical principle was strong and the opposition to Radical tendencies uncompromising; and the Russian Emperor, who was nephew to the Emperor William, took part in the Imperial meeting at Berlin, where the so-called *Dreikaiserbündniss* between the three emperors was arranged. The *entente*—for it was rather an *entente* than a league—between the German, Russian, and Austrian Empires recalled the Holy Alliance and revived the Austro-Russian diplomatic understanding in respect of Turkish affairs. Andrassy and Gorchakof, who were conducting the foreign policy of their respective countries, appear to have been agreed not to interfere with the domestic affairs of Turkey, not to assist the Porte to suppress rebellion, and only to effect fundamental changes in Balkan affairs by slow degrees. A year later (1873) an 'Arrangement' at Schönbrunn confirmed these sentiments of mutual confidence; and at a meeting at Reichstadt on July 8, 1876, between the Austrian and Russian Emperors, to discuss the situation created by the rising in the Balkans, where the Austro-Russian understanding had excited hopes of intervention by the Christian Powers against Turkish authority, their common policy was apparently embodied in perilled memoranda interchanged between the Austrian and Russian ministers.<sup>1</sup> In the event of reconstruction in Turkey—and some reconstruction seems to have been contemplated, even if Turkey defeated its rebellious subjects—the interest of Austria in preventing the acquisition of Bosnia and Herzegovina by the Serbs and Montenegrins was recognized, and, were these nations to achieve independence or were the Turks to prove incapable of maintaining order in those pro-

<sup>1</sup> Hanotaux, *Histoire de la France contemporaine*, iv. 364.



vinces, Austria was to be allowed to occupy them herself. For the rest Russia renounced any intention of taking Constantinople or any land on the right bank of the Danube, of violating the integrity of Rumania, marching troops into Serbia, or constituting a Bulgaria in which she would provide the dynasty or enjoy special privileges. The Andrassy Note<sup>1</sup> of December 30, in which the German and Russian Governments concurred, was an attempt on the part of the Dreikaiserbund to pacify the Balkans without territorial changes.

The terms of the Reichstadt agreement, however, constituted a diplomatic victory for Andrassy; and presently it became the object of Russia to cover her defeat by means of joint armed intervention in Turkey. To this end the Emperor Alexander II on October 26, 1876, proposed the occupation of Bulgaria by Russian, and of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austrian, troops. Austria declined the proposal. But the Central Powers were by no means opposed to intervention by Russia alone, as Bismarck intimated in October 1876 in reply to a fishing inquiry from Russia; and, after the failure of the Constantinople Conference in December, secret conventions were concluded between Austria and Russia giving Russia a free hand in the Balkans, subject to an engagement to make a free city of Constantinople and not to create a big state in the Balkans, while Austria was to maintain neutrality and occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina at the conclusion of peace. On this basis Russia intervened, and, with the Russian troops in view of Constantinople, compelled Turkey to sign the Treaty of San Stefano. The treaty provided for the creation of a 'big' Bulgaria, which appeared to be calculated to increase Russian influence in the Balkans and would incidentally have blocked the Austrian path to Salonika. It thus provided a common basis for action for England and Austria, to which Powers it was almost equally disagreeable. Under

<sup>1</sup> Dealt with more fully in *Bosnia and Herzegovina* (No. 12 of this series), p. 17.

pressure from them the matter was referred to a European Congress, which met at Berlin (June 1878) under Bismarck's presidency. Such auspices were extremely favourable to Austria, who, with England and Germany behind her, was more than a match for Russia; and, in the end, she was put in charge of Bosnia and Herzegovina. This was not all. The right to garrison and to construct military and commercial roads across the Sanjak of Novi Bazar, the possession of which at once separated effectually the Slav States of Serbia and Montenegro and brought the push to Salonika a stage farther, was conceded to her; and, by virtue of a subsequent convention with Turkey, Austria stationed troops in Priboy, Priepolye, and Plevlye. To measure the full extent of the Austrian diplomatic success it is necessary to remember that these additions were obtained without a blow, while Russia, for all her victories, only acquired southern Bessarabia at the expense of her own ally, Rumania. The Magyars, however, disliked the results, for they involved, like the rest of the *Drang nach Osten* policy, an addition to the Slav element in the Dual Monarchy.

#### (7) ANDRÁSSY'S ADMINISTRATION; THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE

The issue of the Congress weakened the conception of the *Dreikaiserbündniss* and drew an expression of veiled hostility from the Russian Emperor. In the following year (October 7, 1879) Bismarck, convinced that an Austrian connexion would give Germany greater influence and independence than a Russian one, and not the less because a good understanding with Austria's old ally, England, was entailed, re-adjusted his foreign policy by the conclusion with Austria of a defensive alliance against an attack by Russia, or any Power supported by Russia.<sup>1</sup> Though Bismarck's figure was dominant, the alliance owed something to the fact that the Austro-Hungarian

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix III, p. 120.

Foreign Minister, Andrassy, was a Magyar. So far as the Dual Monarchy was concerned, it must be regarded as embodying Hungarian as distinct from Austrian ideas. The Austro-Germans would have made the alliance closer; the Austro-Slavs would not have had it at all. It seems to have resulted from a coincidence between the Magyar and Habsburg interests in the foreign relations of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. To Andrassy, who had been largely responsible for the Ausgleich of 1867, it probably appeared in the light of a guarantee for the maintenance of that arrangement, so peculiarly advantageous to the Magyars; to the Emperor it possibly seemed to furnish a means of allaying any German anxiety in respect of the Slavophil direction of his domestic policy. It was decisive of one thing only—the abandonment by Austria of any idea of revenge upon Prussia. Not until after Bismarck's fall did it become an instrument of the *Drang nach Osten* policy.

In 1882 the vexation of Italy at the French occupation of Tunis offered a favourable occasion for the inclusion of that country in the Austro-German Alliance; and after a meeting at Vienna between the Austrian and Italian sovereigns this was arranged. The Triple Alliance was renewed in 1887, 1891, 1896, 1902, and 1912, though, as we now know, Italy in 1902 consummated a *rapprochement* with France which had developed from 1898 onwards, by an agreement under which each Power undertook not to support an aggressive attack upon the other. The provisions of the Triple Alliance, which are believed to have been varied at the dates of renewal, have never been published in their entirety.<sup>1</sup> In reply to an interrogation in 1905 or 1906 as to the exact obligations of Austria under the treaty, Count Goluchowski, the Austrian Foreign Minister, stated that, when either Germany or Austria was attacked on two sides, the intervention of the other party was promised, but that no exact definition of the meaning of an attack on two sides

<sup>1</sup> See, however, Appendix IV, p. 122.



could be given. He also said that the operation of the treaty was not limited to Europe, though Austrian papers under his influence took the line during the Morocco crisis of 1905 that the Alliance did not bind Austria in transmarine affairs. His critics made the point that, whilst the liabilities of Germany and Austria were nominally equal, the fact, that Germany pursued a world-policy and that Austria did not, involved a grave difference in the treaty obligations of the two Powers.

#### (8) AUSTRO-RUSSIAN RELATIONS, 1881-1906; THE MUERZSTEG PROGRAMME

The Austro-German Alliance did not at its inception destroy the conception of the *Dreikaiserbund*. The Emperor William I, who was strongly attached to the Russophil traditions of his house, communicated the contents of the secret agreement with Austria to his nephew, the Emperor (Alexander II) of Russia.<sup>1</sup> In March 1884 Bismarck concluded the first 'Reinsurance' Treaty with Russia. Whether Austria was also a party to this is doubtful. The treaty in any case seems to have pledged the other signatory, or signatories, to a benevolent neutrality in the event of one being attacked.<sup>2</sup> In the autumn the three Emperors met at Skiernevice, where a verbal endorsement, intended especially to eliminate the danger of Russian intrigue on the Balkan frontier of Austria, appears to have been given to the treaty.

Meanwhile events in Serbia and Bulgaria were affording diplomatic opportunities for the repression of the Jugo-Slav and 'big' Bulgarian ideals, which threatened the conservative policy of Austria. In Serbia King Milan, of the Obrenović family, was frankly Austrophil, and, in exchange for the title of king and promises of expansion in Macedonia and Bulgaria, was content in 1882, by a secret six years' Convention, to renounce

<sup>1</sup> Oncken, in the *Cambridge Modern History*, xii, p. 144.

<sup>2</sup> C. Grant Robertson's *Bismarck*, Appendix B.



Pan-Serb propaganda in the Austrian Empire and the right to conclude treaties without authority from the Austrian Government, and to engage, in the event of war in the Near East, to give the Austrian armies free passage through Serbia and to place Belgrade and Nish in Austrian hands. When, in 1885, the nationalist pressure at home led Prince Alexander of Bulgaria, without the leave of the Russian Emperor, to annex Eastern Rumelia, Austria effectively exploited the anger of the Tsar against his nephew and the jealousy of the Serbs at Bulgarian aggrandizement. The declaration of war by Serbia against Bulgaria was prompted by Austria; and it was Austria which, in the interest of the Obrenović dynasty in Serbia, prevented Prince Alexander from gathering the fruit of his victory over the Serbs at Slivnitsa and Tsaribrod. Then, when the Prince abdicated in face of his uncle's continued displeasure, the Austrian Government changed its tactics and countenanced the Bulgarian Nationalists under the leadership of Stambuloff; and it was as a compliment to Austria that the Bulgarian crown was conferred on Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, an officer in the Austrian army. The Prince was clever enough not to let the fall of Stambuloff, which was partly a result of his own desire to improve his relations with Russia, impair the good relations between Bulgaria and Austria which had brought him to a throne and were later to make him a king.

So long as Bismarck remained in power, the uneasy relations between Austria and Russia were prevented by German diplomacy from developing. In 1887 the Reinsurance Treaty between Germany and Russia was renewed (see App. V. p. 123), but without the knowledge of Austria. Three years later, when the treaty is believed to have come up afresh for renewal, the determination of Bismarck to continue to hold the balance between Austria and Russia, whereas the Emperor William II and the *Drang nach Osten* school of German thought favoured a whole-hearted support of Austrian policy in the Balkans, contri-

buted largely to the German Chancellor's downfall. The treaty was not revived; and two consequences followed. The guarantee for peace between Austria and Russia, which had been furnished by Bismarck's secret diplomacy, disappeared; and Russia, finding herself isolated in Europe, concluded in 1891 a defensive alliance with France. The tradition of the Austro-Russian accord, however, persisted, mainly owing to the fact that Russian statesmen had turned their attention from the Near to the Far East, but partly because the growing strength of Liberalism still continued to draw the autocracies together for self-protection. Austrian pique at the revelation to the public in 1896 of the Russo-German 'Reinsurance' Treaty of 1887 must also be taken into account. In the spring of 1897 the Russian and Austrian Emperors met; and their common interest was formally recognized by an agreement in April of that year. The circumstance that Count Goluchowski, a Pole, was then Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister and the Slav element generally potent in Austrian counsels was not unimportant. The effect of the agreement was to define the spheres of influence of the two Powers in the Balkans. Austria was to exercise complete control over Serbia, Russia over Bulgaria. A more restricted influence was allowed to the former over Macedonia, Salonika, and Albania, and to the latter over the remainder of Turkey. Within their spheres of influence the contracting Powers might suppress agitation, even by the use of arms. Count Goluchowski, speaking in 1902, repudiated the notion that Austria desired to pursue a selfish policy, still less to make annexations in the Near East, and expressed a hope that the distrust entertained by the two Empires for one another would presently disappear. A current of mutual goodwill, countenanced especially by the Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Austria and the Grand Duke Michael in Russia, ran through both countries.

*The Muerzsteg Programme.*—In 1903, when the disorders in Macedonia had compelled the interference

of the European Powers, the Russian and Austrian Emperors met at Muerzsteg (October 22) and forced upon the Porte the scheme of reform for the vilayets of Kosovo, Monastir, and Salonika, which goes by the name of the Muerzsteg Programme. The underlying principle of the scheme was the introduction of reforms in conjunction with, not over the head of the Sultan ; but the plan involved, besides the formation of an international financial commission, the creation of an international police with national spheres of administration, and Austria took the opportunity to demand control over the Sanjak of Üsküb (in the Kosovo vilayet), which lay in the direct line between the Sanjak of Novi Bazar and Salonika. The encirclement of Serbia, which this arrangement involved, was not the less acceptable to Austria that the substitution of the Karageorgević for the Obrenović dynasty, which followed the murder of King Alexander of Serbia in June 1903, had destroyed Austrian influence in that country. The new King represented the nationalist movement, which had its eyes fixed upon Skoplje (Üsküb), the old capital of the race. The issue of the tariff war, better known as the 'pig-war', inaugurated in 1905, proved that the economic coercion of Serbia was no longer possible.

The events of 1904-5 contributed further to produce a new orientation in the Balkans, for the Russo-Japanese War had the double effect of reducing Russian prestige in that region, and at the same time forcing Russia back upon a Near Eastern policy, in view of the defeat of her plans in the Far East. It was in these circumstances that Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria began to lean again towards Austria, who appeared to have become a more powerful protector than Russia.



## (9) AEHRENTHAL'S ADMINISTRATION; THE ANNEXATION OF BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA

In the autumn of 1906 Baron Aehrenthal succeeded Count Goluchowski as Foreign Minister and embarked upon an ambitious policy in the Balkans, the progress of which largely contributed to produce the Triple Entente. Aehrenthal's first idea seems to have been to develop the Muerzsteg agreement into a quadruple understanding between Austria, Germany, France, and Russia, so as to undermine the incipient *entente* between England, France, and Russia, and at the same time enable the four Powers interested to afford one another mutual support in regard to their respective ambitions in the Balkans, Mesopotamia, Morocco, and the Dardanelles. Some such project was actually suggested by Aehrenthal and rejected by Isvolsky, the Russian Foreign Minister, in May 1907.<sup>1</sup> Upon its failure Aehrenthal entered upon a negotiation with the Turkish Government, the issue of which gravely affected the good relations between Austria and Russia, where Isvolsky was felt to have suffered a diplomatic defeat. In return (as is alleged by his enemies but as he denied)<sup>2</sup> for the abandonment by Austria of the Muerzsteg reforming policy, what Aehrenthal described as the inauguration of a new route from Central Europe to Egypt and India was agreed to by Turkey. On June 27, 1908, the announcement was made that Austria had obtained permission from the Turkish Government to make a preliminary survey with a view to the construction of a railway line between Uvatz and Mitrovitsa through the Sanjak of Novi Bazar. This concession, if carried into effect, would have resulted in linking Sarajevo and Salonika, and consequently would have thwarted both the Serbian push westwards and the Italian push eastwards through Albania. In point of fact, however, the project appeared on closer inspection to be valueless from

<sup>1</sup> Steed, *The Hapsburg Monarchy*, p. 230.

<sup>2</sup> *Fortnightly Review*, Nov. 1909, p. 782.



a military, prohibitive from a financial, and exacting to the last degree from an engineering standpoint. The Austro-Hungarian General Staff are said to have reported that the proper line of advance upon Salonika was by the valley of the Morava, while the route to Egypt and India *via* Novi Bazar would be at once longer than that through Belgrade and Nish and would involve a vast expenditure of money and of technical skill if the connecting line through Sarajevo to Uvatz were to be given a normal gauge.

The Turkish political situation had not, however, been fully exploited. With the Government of Abdul Hamid tottering to its fall, the moment seemed propitious for the formal annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina to the Austrian Empire. An *aide-mémoire* on June 19 from the Russian Foreign Minister suggesting, so far as is known, that Austria-Hungary and Russia should make a bargain for the annexation to the former of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the settlement in favour of the latter of the Dardanelles question, fell into line with Austrian policy. Before, however, it could be put into effect the Young Turks, whose headquarters were at Salonika, and with whom Aehrenthal had, it is thought, incautiously attempted to come to terms, had brought about the fall of Abdul Hamid in the hope of saving the integrity of the Turkish Empire. Aehrenthal, meanwhile, continued to negotiate with Isvolsky; and his policy had now the justification that, in the expected event of constitutional reform in Turkey, the constitutional question in Bosnia-Herzegovina would inevitably be raised and could not be conveniently resolved while the status of the provinces remained as indefinite as it had been since 1878. In the middle of September, 1908, the two Foreign Ministers met at Count Berchtold's country house (Buchlau) and discussed a programme of mutual compensations. Isvolsky, in return (so the apologist of Aehrenthal alleges)<sup>1</sup> for 'a clear waterway for Russia through the Dardanelles into the Mediterranean',

<sup>1</sup> *Fortnightly Review*, Nov. 1909, p. 788.

appears to have agreed, at least in effect, to the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but to have stipulated that he should receive notice of the date at which this was intended to take place, and that a European Conference should be summoned to approve the transaction.

Aehrenthal, however, gave no warning. On October 6, just after Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria, as he then was, had visited Vienna, Bulgaria declared herself independent of Turkey; and on the following day, October 7, a proclamation was issued by the Austro-Hungarian Government announcing the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, in contravention of Article XXV of the Treaty of Berlin, which provided against the alteration of that settlement by one Power without the concurrence of the other signatories. The procedure or neglect of procedure was, perhaps, more objectionable than the deed itself, for the Berlin Congress had created a situation in the provinces which had eventually to be cleared up at the Turkish expense; but a diplomacy far beyond Aehrenthal's range would have attempted to use the occasion to make the Jugo-Slavs look towards Austria for the realization of their still limited expectations and still unconsolidated ideals.

One or two points in the actual transactions deserve attention. In the first place, there is reason to believe that Aehrenthal had conceived his policy, not under German inspiration, but rather in the hope of reversing the German Emperor's description of Austria at the Algeciras Conference of 1906 as a 'brilliant second', and, perhaps, also with the idea that he might play such a part in Europe as Metternich had played. Italy was probably earlier acquainted with what was in contemplation than Germany; and Italian assent to the annexation is alleged to have been bought at the cheap price of the abandonment of the Sanjak of Novi Bazar by Austria.<sup>1</sup> A closer understanding between Vienna and Rome to the prejudice of Berlin was in fact one of

<sup>1</sup> Steed, *The Hapsburg Monarchy*, p. 276.

the cardinal features of Aehrenthal's diplomacy. Thus Germany, in order to save the solidarity of the Central Powers, supported but did not apparently anticipate the Austrian move. The Austro-Bulgarian understanding was essentially anti-Turkish and out of line with the pro-Turkish policy of Germany in the Near East. The Salonika project, which involved Turkish enmity, cut across the Berlin-Bagdad project, which required Turkish co-operation.

In the second place, the annexation of the two provinces with their Jugo-Slav population was calculated to rouse feeling in Serbia to fever pitch ; and the possibility of war breaking out between Austria and Serbia became the preoccupation of Europe in the early months of 1909. The practical question, however, was whether Russia would take up arms to protect the Serbs against the violation of the Berlin Treaty. The German Government, on their own initiative, forced this issue upon the Russian Government in its most acute form. Russia was not prepared to face war with both the Central Powers ; and, once this was clear, British mediation became effective and the crisis passed away.

Aehrenthal, however, was not in a position to maintain a hostile attitude against both Serbia and Turkey ; and it was no doubt to German satisfaction, if not upon German initiative, that an Austro-Turkish Convention was concluded on February 20, 1909. By this instrument Austria-Hungary renounced all the rights acquired in respect of the Sanjak of Novi Bazar through the Berlin Treaty ; guaranteed the free exercise of the Moslem religion in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the mention of the Sultan's name in the public prayers of the Moslems, and the payment to the Ottoman Government of an indemnity of £T2,500,000 as an equivalent for *vakuf*<sup>1</sup> held by Turkey in Bosnia and Herzegovina ; promised to approve a treaty of commerce involving an addition to Turkish custom-duties and monopolies ; and finally undertook to support a Turkish demand for the replacement of the capitu-

<sup>1</sup> Moslem religious property.



lations by international law. In the following year Austria, in conjunction with Germany, financed a Turkish loan. In the main, however, Aehrenthal's policy remained detached and independent. This course was in accordance with the feelings of the Emperor Francis Joseph, who desired the preservation of peace, and was probably accentuated by Aehrenthal's resentment at the recent high-handed action of Germany at Petersburg, which had at once put Austria under an unwelcome obligation and deprived him of the credit of his diplomatic skill. Neither in regard to the Morocco question, which Germany stirred afresh by sending the *Panther* to Agadir in July 1911, nor in regard to the Berlin-Bagdad and Persian railway projects, did Austria afford her ally effective support; and in 1911 Aehrenthal declined to follow the German lead in condoning Turkish atrocities in Albania, where the Catholicism of part of the population aroused Austrian sympathies. Friction between Berlin and Vienna on this account, as well as on that of the Agadir incident, was in fact so considerable in 1911 as to induce Aehrenthal on two occasions to address the French Ambassador in the following terms: 'Après tout, nous sommes pour le moment les alliés de l'Allemagne; peut-être malheureusement nous ne sommes pas les vôtres.'

#### (10) BERCHTOLD'S ADMINISTRATION

After frustrating the wish of General Conrad von Hötzendorf and the high military command to attack Italy during her struggle with Turkey, Aehrenthal died on February 17, 1912, and was succeeded by Count Berchtold, who had been naturalized as a Hungarian on account of his wife's property in Hungary. The new Foreign Minister's policy was based, like that of his predecessor, upon a desire to maintain the *status quo* in the Balkans and the Mediterranean—a principle of foreign policy increasingly imposed by the growth of domestic differences in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. He was, however, sensible of the growing urgency of the problem



of the subject races of Turkey, particularly in Macedonia and Albania. In the hope of averting war, and, after having vindicated at Berlin earlier in the year the principle of the superior claim of Austrian over German policy in the Near East where any difference appeared, he proposed in August 1912 that the Porte should deal with the subject races of Turkey on the Austrian, [as opposed to the Hungarian model, that is by the grant of linguistic freedom in the schools, law courts, and deliberative assemblies and by the appointment of officials in each locality belonging to the nationality interested. The proposal does not seem to have amounted to a suggestion of local autonomy in Albania and Macedonia, and met with little support among the Powers.

On October 18, 1912, the Balkan League (Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece) declared war on Turkey. During the First Balkan War Count Berchtold, besides desiring to restore peace and avert the disruption of the Turkish Empire, was particularly concerned to defend Austrian interests in the Adriatic and Catholic interests in northern Albania. The two other Powers affected by events in this region were Italy and Serbia. Austria could not afford to be at issue with both; and Count Berchtold, like Aehrenthal before him, preferred a good understanding with Italy. The Italian declaration of war against Turkey on September 29, 1911, which was followed by the fall of General Conrad von Hötzendorf, the leader of the militant anti-Italian party at Vienna, precipitated the *rapprochement*. Austria showed a friendly disposition towards her unsympathetic ally during the war for Tripoli. Her calculation appears to have been that the acquisition of a North African colony would bring Italy into collision with France over Tunis; that territorial differences on the Austro-Italian frontier would fall into the background, as Italy developed her ambitions in the Mediterranean; and that the substitution of Austrian for German influences at Rome might gradually follow. Count Berchtold consequently used such influence as he had at Constan-

tinople to induce Turkey to conclude the Peace of Lausanne with Italy on October 18, 1912, and, three days later at San Rossore, discussed the future of Albania with San Giuliano, the pro-Austrian Italian Foreign Minister. The conversations at San Rossore are understood to have resulted in a scheme for the introduction of reforms into Albania under Austrian supervision in the north and Italian in the south, and in a common agreement for the maintenance of the integrity of Albania against occupation by any other Power. This decision was directed against the political aspirations of Serbia and Montenegro in Albania. Austria feared the effect upon her maritime interests of the possession by Serbia of a port on the Adriatic, and not the less because Russian influence was dominant at Belgrade. She was also concerned to safeguard the religious interests of the Catholics of northern Albania from the Slav propagandists of the Orthodox Church, whose subsequent activities at Djakovo in 1913 did something to justify anxiety on this score. Austria professed her readiness to give Serbia commercial facilities on the Adriatic and, as Serbian ambitions developed during the successes of the First Balkan War, suggested in November 1912 the adoption of one of the following compromises: (i) the construction of a trunk line with unrestricted facilities for Serbian transport from the Serbian frontier to a Dalmatian free port; (ii) the construction of a Serbian railway through Montenegro to Antivari; (iii) the construction of a Danube-Adriatic railway to a neutralized port through Albania; (iv) an outlet for Serbia on the Aegean. The refusal of these offers and an intimation that Serbia desired to divide Albania with Greece led Austria to declare in favour of an autonomous Albania. Count Berchtold, who, to avoid complications with Italy which might have resulted in the Italian occupation of Albania, had tolerated the presence of Serbian troops in the Sanjak of Novi Bazar and in Albania while warlike operations against Turkey were in progress, made it clear that Austria would go to war rather than permit a permanent

Serbian occupation of Albania. At the Ambassadors' Conferences, which opened in London in December 1912, the Austrian delegate was instructed to renew the November offers to Serbia. The Albanian negotiations proved extremely difficult, Austria standing out against Russia for an autonomous Albania and for the inclusion in it of Djakovo and Dibra. She gained the first point, but surrendered the second. The capture of Scutari by the Montenegrins produced another complication; but eventually, under the pressure of the Powers, they agreed to its inclusion in Albania. Serbia with equal reluctance was compelled, by an ultimatum from Austria, to withdraw her troops from Albanian territory. An International Commission, in which Austria and Italy were the active and the Triple Entente the sleeping partners, was set up to preside over the formation of the new State, which was ultimately constituted under Prince William of Wied.

Meanwhile Count Berchtold's opportunist policy had not been sufficiently forcible to avert the Second Balkan War. Rumania, which had drawn away from the Triple Alliance and made approaches to the Entente group in March 1913, dominated the Balkan situation in the summer and placed Bulgaria, which had fallen out with Serbia over the Turkish spoils, at a military disadvantage. It subsequently transpired that Austria-Hungary made proposals to Italy for a joint attack on Serbia; but Italy refused to recognize a *casus foederis*, and on the eve of the Conference of Bucarest Count Berchtold instructed Prince Fürstenberg to work for a frontier settlement on ethnographical lines, and for the retention by Bulgaria of at any rate part of central Macedonia, as well as Kavalla and a coast-line on the Aegean. This project was not realized in the actual settlement. Both Austria and Russia desired that the Great Powers should exercise their claim to a revision of the treaty, but failed to overcome the opposition of France and Italy. Count Berchtold, in a telegram to St. Petersburg, foretold that Bulgaria would not accept

permanently, the conditions which had been forced upon her. Austrian diplomacy was equally active to assist Bulgaria in her peace settlement with Turkey, but with equal ill success. Serbia was hardly less dissatisfied than Bulgaria. While she had gained in power and prestige, and not less in self-confidence, she had been thwarted in her main ambition, and her hostility to Austria had been intensified. Hence the situation at the opening of 1914 contained grave elements of instability, and it was improbable that a catastrophe could be long averted.



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## APPENDIX.

### I.—AUSTRIAN FUNDAMENTAL LAWS<sup>1</sup>

LAW OF DECEMBER 21, 1867, No. 141, IMPERIAL STATUTE BOOK, WHEREBY THE FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF THE REPRESENTATION OF THE EMPIRE, OF FEBRUARY 26, 1861, IS AMENDED.

*(As amended by the Laws of April 2, 1873, and November 12, 1886)*

WITH the consent of both Houses of the Reichsrath, I decide to amend the Fundamental Law of February 26, 1861, on the Imperial Representation, and the same is to run as follows :

1. The Reichsrath is convened for the common representation of the Kingdoms of Bohemia, Dalmatia, Galicia, and Lodomeria, with the Grand-Duchy of Cracow, of the Archduchy of Austria, below and above Enns, of the Duchies of Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and Bukowina, of the Margravate of Moravia, of the Duchy of Upper and Lower Silesia, of the County Palatine of the Tirol, and of the territory of Vorarlberg, of the Margravate of Istria, of the County Palatine of Goritz and Gradisca, and of the town of Trieste with its district. The Reichsrath consists of the House of Lords and the House of Deputies.

No one can be a member of both Houses simultaneously.

2. The Princes of the Imperial House who have attained their majority are members of the House of Lords by birth.

3. Having attained their majority, the heads of those indigenous noble families who by reason of extensive landed property are prominent in the kingdoms and territories represented in the Reichsrath, and on whom the Emperor confers the hereditary dignity of membership of the Reichsrath, are hereditary members of the House of Lords.

4. All Archbishops and those Bishops to whom princely rank belongs by virtue of their high ecclesiastical dignity in the realms and territories represented in the Reichsrath, are members of the House of Lords.

5. It remains reserved to the Emperor to appoint as life-members of the House of Lords distinguished men—from the

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from Drage, G., *Austria-Hungary*, London, 1909.

realms and territories represented in the Reichsrath—who have rendered service in State or Church, Science or Art.

6. Three hundred and fifty-three members are elected to the House of Deputies, and the number is fixed in the following way for the separate kingdoms and territories, to wit :

For the Kingdom of Bohemia . . . . .	92
For the Kingdom of Dalmatia . . . . .	9
For the Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, with the Grand-Duchy of Cracow . . . . .	63
For the Archduchy of Austria below the Enns . . . . .	37
For the Duchy of Austria above the Enns . . . . .	17
For the Duchy of Salzburg . . . . .	5
For the Duchy of Styria . . . . .	23
For the Duchy of Carinthia . . . . .	9
For the Duchy of Carniola . . . . .	10
For the Duchy of Bukowina . . . . .	9
For the Margravate of Moravia . . . . .	36
For the Duchy of Upper and Lower Silesia . . . . .	10
For the County Palatine of Tirol . . . . .	18
For the territory of Vorarlberg . . . . .	3
For the Margravate of Istria . . . . .	4
For the County Palatine of Goritz and Gradisca . . . . .	4
For the town of Trieste with its district . . . . .	4

*Note.*—Sections 6, 7, 15, and 18, were amended by Law of April 2, 1873, No. 40, Imperial Statute Book.

To the above section Article 1 of the Law of June 14, 1896, No. 168, Imperial Statute Book, adds the following provision :

To the 353 members who are to be chosen for the House of Deputies from the electoral classes contained in the Orders of the Country, on the basis of Sections 6 and 7 of the Fundamental Law on the Representation of the Empire (Laws of April 2, 1873, No. 40, Imperial Statute Book, or November 12, 1886, No. 162, Imperial Statute Book), are added 72 members who are elected from a general electoral class to be designated by the letter E.

The fixed number of members for this electoral class is distributed among the several kingdoms and lands, and from this electoral class are to be chosen :

In the Kingdom of Bohemia . . . . .	18
In the Kingdom of Dalmatia . . . . .	2
In the Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, with the Grand-Duchy of Cracow . . . . .	15
In the Archduchy of Austria below the Enns . . . . .	9
In the Archduchy of Austria above the Enns . . . . .	3
In the Duchy of Salzburg . . . . .	1

In the Duchy of Styria . . . . .	4
In the Duchy of Carinthia . . . . .	1
In the Duchy of Carniola . . . . .	1
In the Duchy of Bukowina . . . . .	2
In the Margravate of Moravia . . . . .	7
In the Duchy of Upper and Lower Silesia . . . . .	2
In the County Palatine of the Tirol . . . . .	3
In the territory of Vorarlberg . . . . .	1
In the Margravate of Istria . . . . .	1
In the County Palatine of Goritz and Gradisca . . . . .	1
In the town of Trieste with its district . . . . .	1

The distribution of the members of the House of Deputies—to be elected according to this—among the single electoral districts is fixed by a special law.

*Note.*—See below, Section 7 (A), the Reichsrath's Election Ordinance.

7. (A) The number of members fixed for each country is divided among the electoral classes contained in the regulations for the country : (a) Of the great landed proprietors (registered in the land or feudal court), of those most highly taxed in Dalmatia, of the great proprietors among the nobles, together with the persons in Tirol indicated in Section 3 (1) of the Regulation of the Country ; (b) of the towns (towns, market towns, manufacturing places, localities) ; (c) of the chambers of trade and manufacture ; (d) of the country communes ; and there are to be chosen—

*In the Kingdom of Bohemia :*

- 23 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 32 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 7 members from the electoral class *c*.
- 30 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Kingdom of Dalmatia :*

- 1 member from the electoral class *a*.
- 2 members from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 6 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, with the  
Grand-Duchy of Cracow :*

- 20 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 13 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 3 members from the electoral class *c*.
- 27 members from the electoral class *d*.



*In the Archduchy of Austria below the Enns :*

- 8 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 19 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *c*.
- 8 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Archduchy of Austria above the Enns :*

- 3 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 6 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 1 member from the electoral class *c*.
- 7 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Duchy of Salzburg :*

- 1 member from the electoral class *a*.
- 2 members from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Duchy of Styria :*

- 4 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 8 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *c*.
- 9 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Duchy of Carinthia :*

- 1 member from the electoral class *a*.
- 3 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 1 member from the electoral class *c*.
- 4 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Duchy of Carniola :*

- 2 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 3 members from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 5 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Duchy of Bukowina :*

- 3 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 1 member from the electoral class *c*.
- 3 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Margravate of Moravia :*

- 9 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 13 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 3 members from the electoral class *c*.
- 11 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Duchy of Upper and Lower Silesia :*

- 3 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 4 members from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 3 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the County Palatine of the Tirol :*

- 5 members from the electoral class *a*.
- 5 members from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 8 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Territory of Vorarlberg :*

- 1 member from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Margravate of Istria :*

- 1 member from the electoral class *a*.
- 1 member from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the County Palatine of Goritz and Gradisca :*

- 1 member from the electoral class *a*.
- 1 member from the electoral classes *b* and *c*.
- 2 members from the electoral class *d*.

*In the Town of Trieste with its District :*

- 3 members from the electoral class *b*.
- 1 member from the electoral class *c*.

(B) The appointment of the members of the House of Deputies to be chosen in each electoral class in the single electoral divisions and electoral bodies is fixed by the Reichsrath's Election Ordinance.

(C) In the electoral class of the country communes, and in the electoral districts of the general electoral class formed exclusively from the judicial circuits, the deputies are chosen by electors chosen by those who are entitled to vote ; but in the other electoral classes and in the remaining electoral districts of the general electoral class, they are chosen directly by those entitled to vote.

However, in territories in which the direct election of the deputies of the Provisional Diet is fixed by statutory decrees of the county in the electoral class of the country communes, the members of the House of Deputies are also to be elected directly by those entitled to vote in the electoral class of the country

communes, as also in all the electoral districts of the general electoral class.

The choice of the electors and of the deputies has to be arrived at by means of an absolute majority of votes.

If this majority of votes is not attained at one, or even, inasmuch as several deputies are still to be chosen, at a continued second ballot, if the votes are equally divided, it is decided by lot.

(D) Every Austrian citizen who has passed his twenty-fourth year, is his own master, and fulfils the other requirements laid down by the Reichsrath's Election Ordinance, or by the Law of June 14, 1896, No. 169, Imperial Statute Book, is entitled to vote.

*Note.*—This version of Subsections C and D was enacted by the law of June 14, 1896, No. 168, Imperial Statute Book.

(E) All persons of the male sex in each of the territories specified in Section 6, who have possessed Austrian civil rights for at least three years, and have passed their thirtieth year, are eligible and are entitled to vote in one of these territories, according to the directions of Subsection D, or are eligible in the Provincial Diet.

*Note.*—This wording of Section 7, Subsections A, B, and E, was enacted by the Law of April 2, 1873, No. 40, Imperial Statute Book, and of November 12, 1886, No. 162, Imperial Statute Book.

8. The public officials and functionaries elected in the House of Deputies need no leave of absence for the exercise of their mandate.

9. The Emperor appoints the President and Vice-President of the House of Lords from its members for the duration of the session.

The House of Deputies elects the President and the Vice-Presidents from its midst. Each House has to elect the remaining functionaries itself.

10. The Reichsrath is convened annually by the Emperor, in the winter months if possible.

11. The province of the Reichsrath embraces all affairs which relate to rights, duties, and interests, which are common to all the realms and territories represented in the Reichsrath, in so far as the same will not, in consequence of the Agreement with the Lands of the Hungarian Crown, be treated as common between these and the remaining territories of the monarchy. Therefore there belong to the province of the Reichsrath—

(a) The examination and ratification of the commercial treaties and of those treaties which burden the empire or part of the same, or lay obligations on individual citizens, or involve

a territorial change of the realms and territories represented in the Reichsrath.

(b) All affairs which relate to the method and manner, as well as to the order and duration, of military service, and in particular the annual granting of the number of the men to be levied, and the general directions relative to furnishing of relays, the maintenance and quartering of the army.

(c) The fixing of the estimates of the Budget, and in particular the annual granting of the taxes, imposts, and duties, to be raised ; the examination of the settlement of the State accounts, and the results of the financial policy and the issue of the absolutorium.

The contracting of new loans ; the conversion of existing State debts ; the alienation, conversion, and burdening, of immovable public property ; the legislation on monopolies and royalties ; and, generally, all financial affairs which are common to the realms and territories represented in the Reichsrath.

(d) The settlement of the monetary, mint, and bank note system, of the Customs and commercial affairs, as also of the telegraphic, postal, railway, navigation, and other imperial systems of communication.

(e) The Credit, Bank, privileges and industrial legislation, exclusive of the legislation on licensing (*Propinationsrechte*) ; further, the legislation on weights and measures, on patents and trade mark protection.

(f) Public Health (medicinal) legislation, as also legislation for protection against epidemics and cattle plagues.

(g) The legislation on civic rights and naturalization, on police regulation of foreigners and the passport system, as also on the taking of the census.

(h) On the relations of religious denominations, on the right of association and meeting, on the press, and the protection of intellectual property.

(i) The fixing of the principles of public instruction with regard to the elementary schools and grammar schools (*Gymnasien*) ; further, the legislation as to the Universities.

(k) Legislation concerning criminal law and police-court law, as also civil law, exclusive of legislation on the internal organization of the public registers and on such subjects as belong to the province of the Provincial Diets, on the basis of the provincial ordinances and of this fundamental law ; and, further, the legislation on commercial law and the law as to bills of exchange, maritime law, mining law, and feudal tenure.

(l) The legislation on the chief features of the organization of the office of the Court of Justice and of the administration.

(m) The laws to be enacted, and there cited for the execution



of the fundamental laws of the State, on the general rights of the citizens, on the Supreme Court of the Empire, on the judiciary power, the governmental power, and the executive power.

(n) The legislation on those subjects which concern the duties and relations between the single territories.

(o) The legislation relative to the form of the treatment of the affairs designated as common through the agreement with the territories belonging to the Hungarian Crown.

12. All other subjects of legislation which are not expressly reserved to the Reichsrath in this law belong to the province of the Provincial Diets of the kingdoms and lands represented in the Reichsrath, and are settled constitutionally in and with these Provincial Diets.

Should any Provincial Diet resolve, however, that one or another subject of legislation given over to it should be treated and settled in the Reichsrath, then such a subject passes over in this case, and with regard to the Diet in question, to the province of the Reichsrath.

13. Bills come to the Reichsrath as Government proposals. The right to propose laws on subjects within its province belongs to this body also.

The agreement of both Houses and the sanction of the Emperor is necessary for every law.

If, in spite of repeated deliberation, no agreement can be arrived at between the two Houses in a financial law as to single items of the same, or in the law regarding recruits as to the numbers (*höhe*) of the contingent to be levied, then the smaller figure is taken as granted.

14. If the pressing necessity of ordinances, for which constitutionally the assent of the Reichsrath is necessary, arises at a time when it is not assembled, the same can be enacted, under the responsibility of the whole Ministry, by means of an imperial ordinance, in so far as these have in view no alteration of the fundamental law of the State, relate to no lasting burdening of the State Treasury and no alienation of public property. Such ordinances have provisionally the force of law, if they are signed by the whole of the Ministers and are promulgated with express reference to this provision of the fundamental law of the State.

The legal force of these ordinances lapses (*erlischt*) if the Government has failed to submit the same for approval to the next Reichsrath, meeting after the proclamation thereof, and moreover, in the first place to the House of Deputies within four weeks after this meeting, or if the same do not receive the ratification of one of the two Houses of the Reichsrath.

The whole Ministry is responsible for this, that such ordinances, as soon as they have lost their provisional legal force, be immediately annulled.

15. For a valid decision of the Reichsrath, the presence of 100 members in the House of Deputies and of forty in the House of Lords, and in both an absolute majority of the votes of those present, is necessary.

Alterations in this fundamental law, as also in the fundamental laws of the State with regard to the general rights of the citizens for the kingdoms and territories represented in the Reichsrath, with regard to the institution of a Supreme Court of the Empire, with regard to the judicial power as well as with regard to the exercise of the governmental and executive power, can only be decreed in a valid manner with a majority of at least two-thirds of the votes of those present, and only in the House of Deputies if at least half of the members are present.

*Note.*—This wording of Section 15 was enacted by the Law of April 2, 1873, No. 40, Imperial Statute Book.

16. The members of the House of Deputies must take no instructions from their constituents.

The members of the Reichsrath can never be brought to account for the votes given in the exercise of their calling, and for the expressions used in that calling only by the House to which they belong.

No member of the Reichsrath can, without the assent of the House, be arrested, or have legal proceedings taken against him, during the duration of the session, on account of a criminal action, except in the case of being taken in the very act.

Even in the case of being taken in the very act, the Court of Justice has immediately to notify the arrest which has taken place to the President of the House.

If the House demand it, the arrest must be quashed, or the prosecution must be postponed for the entire period of the session. The House has the same right with regard to an arrest or an examination which has been adjudged concerning a member of the same, after the period of the session.

17. All members of the Reichsrath must exercise their right of voting personally.

18. The members of the House of Deputies are chosen for the period of six years.

After the expiry of this period of election, as well as in the event of the dissolution of the House of Deputies, new General Elections follow.

Those who have been deputies can be chosen again.

During the continuance of the period of election, by-elections are to be held, if a member is no longer eligible for election.

dies, resigns his mandate, or ceases to be a member of the Reichsrath on any other legal ground.

*Note.*—This wording of Section 18 was enacted by the Law of April 2, 1873, No. 40, Imperial Statute Book.

19. The prorogation of the Reichsrath, as well as the dissolution of the House of Deputies, takes place at the decree of the Emperor.

In the event of dissolution, there is to be a new election within the meaning of Section 7.

20. The Ministers and heads of the central offices are entitled to take part in all deliberations, and to bring forward their proposals personally or by means of a deputy.

Each House can demand the presence of the Ministers.

They must always be heard at their request. They have the right to take part in the voting in so far as they are members of one House.

21. Each of the two Houses of the Reichsrath is entitled to question the Ministers in all that its province requires, to subject the administrative actions of the Government to examination, to demand information from the same about petitions which come in, to appoint Commissions to which the necessary information is to be given on the part of the Ministry, and to give expression to its opinions in the form of addresses or resolutions.

22. The exercise of the control of the national debt by means of the representative bodies is fixed by a special law.

23. The sittings of both Houses of the Reichsrath are public.

To each House pertains the right to exclude the public in exceptional cases, if it is demanded by the President or at least ten members, and is resolved upon by the House after the dismissal of the audience.

24. The law concerning the standing orders of the Reichsrath contains the more precise instructions as to the communication of both Houses with each other and with the outside world.

#### FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF THE STATE OF DECEMBER 21, 1867, No. 142 OF THE IMPERIAL STATUTE BOOK : ON THE GENERAL RIGHTS OF THE CITIZENS FOR THE KINGDOMS AND TERRITORIES REPRESENTED IN THE REICHSRATH.

With the consent of both Houses of the Reichsrath, I enact and ordain the following fundamental law of the State on the general rights of the citizens as follows :

1. A general Austrian citizenship exists for all who belong to the kingdoms and territories represented in the Reichsrath.

The law determines under what conditions Austrian citizenship is acquired, exercised, and lost.

2. All citizens are equal before the law.

3. Public posts are equally accessible for all citizens.

Admission into the same for foreigners is made dependent upon the acquisition of Austrian citizenship.

4. Freedom of settlement [lit. migration] of person and property within the territory of the State is subject to no limitation.

The right to be elected and the right to vote for the communal (*Gemeinde*) representation belongs to all citizens who live in the commune and pay taxes there—from their real property, their earnings, or their income—under the same conditions as to those who belong to the commune.

Freedom to emigrate is only limited by the State through the obligation to military service.

Taxes on emigrants (*Abfahrtsgelder*) can only be levied on practice of reciprocity.

5. Property is inviolable. An expropriation against the will of the proprietor can only take place in the cases and in the manner which the law determines.

6. Every citizen is entitled to take up his abode and residence at any place in the territory of the State, acquire real estate of every kind, and dispose of the same freely, and can also exercise every industry, under legal conditions.

Limitations of the right of corporations (holders in mortmain) to acquire real estates and to dispose of them are admissible by law on the ground of the public welfare.

7. Every tie of serfdom and bondage is abolished for ever. Every indebtedness or service attached to real estate by reason of the division of property may be redeemed, and in future no real estate may be encumbered with such an irredeemable burden.

8. The freedom of the individual is guaranteed. The existing Law of October 27, 1862, No. 87 of the Imperial Statute Book, for the protection of personal freedom, is hereby declared as an essential part of this fundamental law of the State.

Every illegally decreed or prolonged arrest lays the State under the obligation to compensate the injured person.

9. Domiciliary right (*Hausrecht*) is inviolable.

The existing Law of October 27, 1862, No. 88, Imperial Statute Book, for the protection of domiciliary right, is herewith declared as an essential part of this fundamental law of the State.

10. The privacy of letters may not be violated, and confiscations of letters, except in case of a legal arrest or domiciliary



visit, are only undertaken in cases of war or on the ground of a judicial order in conformity with the existing laws.

*Note.*—*Cf.* the Law of April 6, 1870.

11. Every one has a right to petition.

Petitions under a collective name may only proceed from legally recognized corporations or associations.

12. The Austrian citizens have the right to assemble and to form associations. The exercise of these rights is regulated by means of special laws.

*Note.*—*Cf.* the Law of November 15, 1867, Nos. 134 and 135, Imperial Statute Book, on the right of association and assembly.

13. Every one has the right to express his opinion freely within legal bounds, by word, in writing, in print, or by pictorial representation.

The press may neither be subjected to censorship nor be restricted by the system of concessions. Administrative postal prohibitions do not apply to home printed matter (*inländische Druckschriften*).

14. Full liberty of belief and of conscience is guaranteed to every one. The enjoyment of civic and political rights is independent of religious creed; yet civic duties may not be prejudiced through religious creed. No one can be forced to an ecclesiastical act or to take part in an ecclesiastical ceremony, in so far as he is not subject to the power of another, hereto entitled according to the law.

15. Every legally recognized Church and religious society has the right of exercising common public worship; orders and controls its internal affairs independently; remains in possession and enjoyment of its institutions, foundations, funds, designed for purposes of worship, instruction, and benevolence; but is, like every society, subject to the general laws of the State.

16. Domestic religious worship is permitted to the adherents of a religious creed not legally recognized, in so far as the same is neither illegal nor morally injurious.

17. Learning and teaching are free from restriction. Every citizen who has shown his capacity thereto, as the law directs, is entitled to found institutions for instruction and education and to impart instruction thereat.

Domestic instruction is subject to no such limitation.

Religious instruction in the schools is to be cared for by the Churches or religious societies concerned.

The right of the supreme direction and supervision of the whole system of instruction and education belongs to the State.

18. Every one is at liberty to choose his profession, and to train himself for the same, how and where he will.

19. All the races of the State have equal rights, and each race has an inviolable right to preserve and foster its nationality and language.

The equal rights of all languages customary in the country, in school, official, and public life, are recognized by the State.

In the lands in which several races dwell, the institutions for public instruction must be arranged in such a way that each of these races obtains the necessary means for education in its own language, without being compelled to learn a second local language.

20. A special law will decide as to the admissibility of the temporary and local suspension of the rights contained in Articles 8, 9, 10, 12, and 13, through the responsible Government authority.

FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF THE STATE OF DECEMBER 21, 1867, No. 143 OF THE IMPERIAL STATUTE BOOK : ON THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A SUPREME COURT OF THE EMPIRE.

With the consent of both Houses of the Reichsrath, I enact and ordain the following fundamental law of the State as follows :

1. A Supreme Court of the Empire is instituted for the kingdoms and lands represented in the Reichsrath, for decision upon disputes as to competence and in controversial matters of public law.

2. The Supreme Court of the Empire has to decide finally upon disputes as to competence—(a) Between judicial and administrative officials on the question whether an affair is to be dealt with by course of law or administratively, in the cases fixed by the law ; (b) between a Local Diet (*Landesvertretung*) and the supreme administrative officials, if each of the same claim the right to order or decide in a matter of administration ; (c) between the autonomous local organs of different territories in the affairs assigned to their management and administration.

3. The final decision pertains to the Supreme Court of the Empire, further—(a) As to the claims of individual territories of the kingdoms and lands represented in the Reichsrath against the whole of the same, and conversely ; then as to the claims of one of these kingdoms and lands against another of the same ; finally, as to claims which are put forth by communes (*Gemeinden*), corporations, or single persons, against one of the said kingdoms and lands, or the whole of the same, if such claims are not such as can be decided in the ordinary course of law.

*Note.*—The Minister of Justice decides as to the claim raised for damages for a sentence illegally passed, and fixes the amount of the compensation. A respite of sixty days from the delivery of the decision of the Minister of Justice till the raising of his claim before the Supreme Court of Justice is open to the plaintiff. The term cannot be prolonged, and the claim cannot be raised a second time on the ground of the lapse of the term. (Law of March 16, 1892, No. 64, Imperial Statute Book, Sections 7, 8.)

(b) As to the complaints of the citizens on account of infraction of the political rights guaranteed to them by the constitution, after the affair has been decided in the administrative way prescribed by law.

4. As to the question whether the decision of a case pertains to the Supreme Court of the Empire, the Supreme Court of the Empire itself decides solely and alone. Its decisions exclude every further appeal, as also the initiation of legal proceedings. If a case is referred by the Supreme Court of the Empire to the regular Judge or to an administrative official, the same cannot decline to give a decision on the ground of incompetence.

5. The Supreme Court of the Empire has its seat in Vienna, and consists of the President and his Deputy, who are appointed by the Emperor for life ; then of twelve members and four substitutes, whom the Emperor appoints also for life on the proposal of the Reichsrath—to wit, six members and two substitutes from the persons proposed by the House of Deputies ; and six members and two substitutes from those proposed by the House of Lords.

The proposal is made in such a manner that three experts are designated for each of the places to be filled.

6. A special law will fix the more precise instructions as to the organization of the Supreme Court of the Empire, as to the procedure before the same, and as to the execution of its decisions and orders.

*Note.*—The special law here held in prospect was enacted on April 18, 1869, No. 44, Imperial Statute Book.

#### FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF THE STATE OF DECEMBER 21, 1867, No. 144 OF THE IMPERIAL STATUTE BOOK : ON THE JUDICIAL POWER.

With the consent of both Houses of the Reichsrath, I enact and decree the following fundamental law of the State on the judicial power as follows :

1. All jurisdiction in the State is exercised in the name of the Emperor.

The judgements and sentences are executed in the name of the Emperor.

2. The organization and competence of the courts is determined by laws.

Exceptional courts are only admissible in the cases fixed beforehand by the laws.

3. The sphere of activity of the courts-martial is fixed by special laws.

4. The jurisdiction relative to the minor offences of police law and the laws with regard to rates and taxes is regulated by laws.

5. The Judges are appointed by the Emperor or in his name, finally and for life.

6. The Judges are independent and free from control in the exercise of their judicial office.

They can only be removed from their office in the cases prescribed by the laws, and only in virtue of a formal judicial sentence. The temporary suspension from office of the same can only be effected by order of the Judicial Committee or the Upper Court, subject to simultaneous reference of the affair to the proper court. Removal to another position or involuntary retirement on a pension can only be effected by means of a judicial decision in the cases and forms fixed by the law.

*Note.*—*Cf.* the Law of May 21, 1868, No. 46, Imperial Statute Book, on the disciplinary treatment of judicial officials, and the enforced removal to another position or enforced retirement of the same.

These decisions, however, do not apply to the removals (from office) and retirements on a pension which are necessitated by changes in the organization of the courts.

7. The examination of the validity of laws properly published does not pertain to the courts. On the other hand, the courts have to decide on the validity of ordinances in legal succession of appeals.

8. All judicial officials have to swear in their oath of office to keep inviolable the fundamental laws of the State also.

9. The State or its judicial officials can be sued on account of the legal injuries occasioned by the latter in the exercise of their official activity by plaintiff, besides the legal remedies indicated in the judicial procedure.

This right of plaintiff is regulated by a special law.

*Note.*—This special law is the Law of July 12, 1872, No. 112, Imperial Statute Book.

10. The proceedings before the awarding (*Erkennende*) Judge are verbal and public in affairs of civil and criminal law.



The law determines the exceptions. In criminal matters the procedure is by bill of indictment (*Anklageprocess*).

11. A jury decides as to the guilt of the accused in felonies threatened with severe punishments which the law has to indicate, as also in all felonies and misdemeanours, whether political, or perpetrated by the contents of a publication.

*Note.*—*Cf.* the Introductory Law to the Code of Criminal Procedure.

See also the Law of June 25, 1886, No. 98, Imperial Statute Book, and the Law of May 23, 1873, No. 120, Imperial Statute Book.

12. The Supreme Court of Justice and Court of Cassation in Vienna is for the kingdoms and territories represented in the Reichsrath.

13. The Emperor has the right to grant a general pardon, and to remit or mitigate the punishments which were pronounced by the courts, as also to revise the legal consequences of the sentences, with reservation of the limitations contained in the law with regard to the responsibility of the Minister.

The regulation of the right to decree that criminal proceedings on account of a punishable action should not be instituted, or that the criminal proceedings instituted should be stayed, is reserved to the rules of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

14. The Administration of Justice (*Rechtspflege*) is separate from the Administrative Government (*Verwaltung*) in every instance.

15. In all cases in which an administrative authority has to decide according to existing laws, or laws to be enacted in the future, upon conflicting claims between private individuals, the party whose private rights have been injured by this decision is at liberty to seek redress against the other party in due course of law.

If, besides this, any one maintains that his rights have been violated by a decision or order of an administrative authority, he is at liberty to assert his claims against a representative of the administrative authority before the Court for the Administration of Justice, by public verbal proceedings.

The cases in which the Court for the Administration of Justice has to decide, the composition of that court, and also the procedure before the same, are determined by a special law.

*Note.*—See, further, the Law of October 22, 1875, No. 36, Imperial Statute Book for 1876, relative to the establishment of a Judicial Court of Administration.

## FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF THE STATE OF DECEMBER 21, 1867, No. 145 OF THE IMPERIAL STATUTE BOOK : ON THE GOVERNMENTAL AND EXECUTIVE POWER.

With the consent of both Houses of the Reichsrath, I enact and decree the following fundamental law of the State on the exercise of the governmental and executive power as follows :

1. The Emperor is sacred, inviolable, and irresponsible.
2. The Emperor exercises the governmental power through responsible Ministers and the subordinate officials and appointees of the same.
3. The Emperor nominates and dismisses the Ministers, and appoints to all offices in all branches of the service of the State, on the proposal of the Ministers in question, unless the law otherwise directs.
4. The Emperor confers titles, orders, and other State distinctions.

5. The Emperor has the supreme command over the armed forces, declares war, and concludes peace.

6. The Emperor concludes the State treaties.

The consent of the Reichsrath is necessary to the validity of commercial treaties and of those State treaties which burden the Empire or part of the same, or lay single citizens under obligations.

7. The right of coinage is exercised in the name of the Emperor.

8. The Emperor, on accession to the throne, takes the solemn oath in the presence of both Houses of the Reichsrath :

‘To keep the fundamental laws of the kingdoms and lands represented in the Reichsrath inviolable, and to rule in harmony with the same and the general laws.’

9. The Ministers are responsible for the constitutionality and legality of the acts of the Government falling within the sphere of their taking official province (*Amtswirksamkeit*).

The responsibility, the composition of the Court of Justice to give judgement on the impeachment of a Minister, and the proceedings before the same, are regulated by a special law.

10. The publication of the laws is effected in the name of the Emperor, with a mention of the consent of the constitutionally representative bodies, and subject to the co-operation of a responsible Minister.

11. The Government authorities are entitled to enact ordinances and give orders—within their official province—on the basis of the laws, and to enforce the observance of these

latter, as well as the statutory ordinances even against those under obligation thereto.

Special laws regulate the executive right of the administrative authorities, as also the powers of the armed forces which are permanently organized for the public security, tranquillity, and order, or are called out in special cases.

12. All the State servants are responsible within their official province for the observance of the fundamental laws of the State, as also for the direction of business in keeping with the imperial and local laws.

Those organs of the executive power to whose disciplinary power the State servants in question are subject are in duty bound to enforce this responsibility.

The liability at civil law of the same for the legal injuries arising through orders contrary to duty is regulated by a law.

13. All organs of the State administration have also to swear to the inviolable observance of the fundamental laws of the State in their oath of service.

#### LAW No. 146 OF DECEMBER 21, 1867 : REGARDING AFFAIRS COMMON TO ALL THE LANDS OF THE AUSTRIAN MONARCHY, AND THE MANNER OF THEIR TREATMENT.

With consent of both Houses of the Reichsrath, I enact the following law to supplement the fundamental law with regard to the representation of the Empire :

1. The following affairs are declared as common to the realms and lands represented in the Reichsrath, and to the territories of the Hungarian Crown :

(a) Foreign affairs, including diplomatic and commercial representation in relation to foreign countries, as well as the dispositions that may be necessary with regard to international treaties, whereby, however, the ratification of the international treaties in so far as such ratification is constitutionally necessary remains reserved to the representative bodies of both halves of the Empire (to the Reichsrath and to the Hungarian Parliament).

(b) Military affairs, including the navy, with the exception, however, of the granting of recruits, and of the legislation as to the method and manner of the fulfilment of the obligation to serve in the army ; of the orders relative to the moving and maintenance of the army ; further, of the regulation of the civic relations, and of the rights and duties not connected with military service, of the members of the army.

(c) Finance with regard to the expenses to be defrayed in

common, particularly the fixing of the budget relating thereto and the examination of the accounts referring to the same.

2. Furthermore, the following affairs should not, indeed, be administered in common, yet they are dealt with according to similar principles to be agreed upon from time to time.

(1) Commercial affairs, especially the Customs legislation.

(2) The legislation about the indirect taxes, closely connected with industrial production.

(3) The fixing of the coinage system and the money standard.

*Note.*—By Law of August 2, 1892, No. 127, Imperial Statute Book, the Ministry of the kingdoms and lands represented in the Reichsrath was empowered to conclude a coinage and standard agreement with the Ministry of the lands of the Hungarian Crown.

This agreement was concluded by Proclamation of the Minister President of August 11, 1892, No. 132, Imperial Statute Book, in the version fixed by the Law of August 2, 1892, No. 127, Imperial Statute Book, and August 11, 1892, was agreed upon as the day of the promulgation and of the commencement of the legal force thereof.

(4) Orders relative to those lines of railways which affect the interests of both halves of the Empire.

(5) The fixing of the system of defence.

3. The costs of the common affairs (Section 1) are to be borne by both parts of the Empire according to a proportion which will be fixed from time to time by a mutual agreement of the representative bodies (the Reichsrath and the Hungarian Parliament) to be sanctioned by the Emperor. Should no agreement be arrived at between the two representative bodies, then the Emperor determines this proportion—*only, however, for the duration of one year.*

The defraying of the expense of the services falling on each of the two parts of the Empire according to this provision is, however, exclusively the affair of each side.

A common loan can also, however, be incurred for the defraying of the expenses of the common affairs, in which case also all that relates to the contracting of the loan, and the means of its application and repayment, is to be treated in common.

The decision on the question whether a common loan is to be incurred remains reserved, however, to the legislature of each of the two halves of the Empire.

4. The contribution of the quota to the burdens of the present State debt is regulated by means of an agreement to be arrived at between both halves of the Empire.

5. The administration of the common affairs is provided through a common responsible Ministry, which is not allowed,



however, to conduct the special governmental business of one of the two parts of the Empire also along with the common affairs.

The orders relative to the management, command, and internal organization of the joint army pertain to the Emperor exclusively.

6. The right of legislation belonging to the representative bodies of both halves of the Empire (to the Reichsrath and to the Hungarian Parliament) is to be exercised by the same—in so far as the common affairs are concerned—by means of delegations which are to be despatched.

7. The delegation of the Reichsrath numbers sixty members, of whom one-third are taken from the House of Lords and two-thirds from the House of Deputies.

8. It devolves upon the House of Lords to choose the twenty members of the delegation from their midst by means of an absolute majority of votes.

The forty members devolving upon the House of Deputies are chosen in such a manner that the deputies of the separate Diets despatch the delegates according to the following mode of distribution, whereby they are at liberty to choose the same either from their midst or from the full session of the House.

The deputies have to choose by means of an absolute majority of votes.

From the Kingdom of Bohemia . . . . .	10
From the Kingdom of Dalmatia . . . . .	1
From the Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, with the Grand-Duchy of Cracow . . . . .	7
From the Archduchy of Austria below the Enns . . . . .	3
From the Archduchy of Austria above the Enns . . . . .	2
From the Duchy of Salzburg . . . . .	1
From the Duchy of Styria . . . . .	2
From the Duchy of Carinthia . . . . .	1
From the Duchy of Carniola . . . . .	1
From the Duchy of Bukowina . . . . .	1
From the Margravate of Moravia . . . . .	4
From the Duchy of Upper and Lower Silesia . . . . .	1
From the County Palatine of the Tirol . . . . .	2
From the territory of Vorarlberg . . . . .	1
From the Margravate of Istria . . . . .	1
From the County Palatine of Goritz and Gradisca . . . . .	1
From the town of Trieste with its district . . . . .	1

*Note.* The number of delegates and substitutes falling to

each land, according to Subsections 2 and 3 of this section, and according to the following Section 9, is to be elected at present by the elected members of the House of Deputies in the lands concerned (concluding sentence of Article II. of the Law of April 2, 1873, No. 40, Imperial Statute Book).

9. In like manner, each of the two Houses of the Reichsrath has to choose substitutes for the delegates, the number of whom amounts to ten for the House of Lords, and twenty for the House of Deputies.

The number of the substitutes to be chosen from the House of Deputies is distributed in proportion to the delegates to be despatched from the same, so that there is one substitute for one to three delegates, two substitutes for four and more delegates. The choice of each substitute is to be considered separately.

*Note.*—See the note to the preceding section (8).

10. The choice of the delegates and their substitutes is renewed annually from both Houses of the Reichsrath.

Until then the delegates and substitutes remain in their function.

The retired members of the delegation can be re-elected in the same.

11. The delegations are convened annually by the Emperor. The meeting-place is fixed by the Emperor.

12. The delegation of the Reichsrath chooses from its members the President and Vice-President, as also the Secretary and remaining functionaries.

13. The province of the delegations comprehends all subjects which concern the common affairs.

Other subjects are excluded from the competence of the delegations.

14. Government proposals reach each of the two delegations separately by means of the common Ministry.

The right to make proposals on subjects within their province pertains also to each delegation.

15. For all laws concerning the affairs within the province of the delegations, an accord between both delegations is requisite, or, failing an accord, a resolution framed and agreed to in a common full session of both delegations and in every case the sanction of the Emperor.

16. The right to call the common Ministry to account is exercised by the delegations.

On the violation of a constitutional law existing for the common affairs, each delegation can move the impeachment (which is to be communicated to the other delegation) of the common Ministry or of a single member.

The impeachment is legally valid if it is resolved upon by each delegation separately or in a common full session of both delegations.

17. Each delegation proposes twenty-four Judges from the independent citizens learned in the law of those lands which it represents—not, however, from its own midst—of whom the other delegation can reject twelve.

The accused also, or if there are several, all the accused have in common the right to decline twelve of those proposed—only, however, in such manner that an equal number of those proposed in this way by means of either delegation are declined.

The remaining Judges left after this form the court of justice for the lawsuit under discussion.

18. A special law on the responsibility of the common Ministry will fix the more precise instructions as to the impeachment, the procedure, and the sentence.

19. Each of the two delegations negotiates, deliberates, and resolves for itself, in separate sittings.

Section 31 contains the exceptional case.

20. The presence of at least thirty members besides the Chairman is requisite to enable the delegation of the Reichsrath to come to a decision, and the absolute majority of votes of those present is necessary for the validity of the resolution.

21. The delegates and substitutes of the Reichsrath must accept no instructions from their electors.

22. The delegates of the Reichsrath must exercise their right of voting personally.

Section 25 fixes when a substitute has to enter office.

23. The delegates of the Reichsrath enjoy in this capacity the same inviolability and irresponsibility which belong to them as members of the Reichsrath, by virtue of Section 16 of the Fundamental Law on the Imperial Representation.

The rights relating to the delegates, granted to the House in question of this paragraph, appertain to the delegation in so far as the Reichsrath is not assembled at the same time.

24. Withdrawal from the Reichsrath involves withdrawal from the delegation also.

25. If a member of the delegation or a substitute resign, then a new election is to be proposed. If the Reichsrath is not assembled, then his substitute has to take the place of the retiring delegate.

26. If the House of Deputies is dissolved, then the competence of the delegation of the Reichsrath also expires.

The newly convened Reichsrath elects a new delegation.

27. The session of the delegation is closed by the President of the same, after the termination of the business, with the approval or on the mandate of the Emperor.

28. The members of the common Ministry are entitled to take part at all councils of the delegation, and to advocate their proposals personally or through a deputy.

They must be heard every time on demand. The delegation has the right to address questions to the common Ministry or to a single member thereof, and to demand answer and explanation therefrom; further, to appoint Commissions to which the information required is to be given on the part of the Ministry.

29. The sittings of the delegation are public as a rule.

By way of exception, the public can be excluded if it is demanded by the President or by at least five members, and resolved upon by the Assembly after the departure of the audience.

A resolution can only be taken, however, in a public sitting.

30. Both delegations communicate their resolutions to each other, as well as the reasons thereof, when necessary.

This communication is carried on in writing, in German on the side of the delegation of the Reichsrath, in the Hungarian language on the side of the delegation of the Hungarian Parliament, and on both sides with the enclosure of an authoritative translation in the language of the other delegation.

31. Each delegation is entitled to move that the question be decided by means of common voting, and this motion cannot be refused by the other delegation as soon as a threefold exchange of letters has remained unsuccessful.

The Presidents of both sides agree upon the place and time for a full session of both delegations for the purpose of common voting.

32. The Presidents of the delegations preside alternately in the full session.

It is decided by lot which of the two Presidents has to preside the first time. In all following sessions the President of that delegation whose President has not presided at the session immediately preceding presides at the first full assembly.

33. The presence of at least two-thirds of the members of each delegation is requisite in order that the full assembly may be competent to make resolutions.

The resolution is made by an absolute majority of votes.

If more members are present on the side of one delegation than on the side of the other, then on the side of the delegation in a majority as many members have to refrain from voting as must fall out to restore the equality of number of those voting



on both sides. It is decided by lot who has to refrain from voting.

34. The full sessions of both delegations are public.

The minutes are kept in both languages by the Secretaries of both sides, and attested in common.

35. The more precise instructions as to the course of business are regulated by means of the standing orders, the settlement of which is to be effected through the delegation.

36. The agreement in relation to those subjects which are not indeed treated as common, but are, however, to be regulated according to common principles, is effected either in this way—that the responsible Ministry elaborate a Bill in common understanding, and lay it before the representative bodies concerned or both sides for their decision, and the decisions agreed upon by both representations are laid before the Emperor for his sanction; or that the two representative bodies choose, each from its midst, equally large deputations which elaborate a proposal under the influence of the Ministry concerned, which proposal is then communicated by the Ministry to each representative body, and treated regularly by the same, and the corresponding resolutions of both representations are laid before the Emperor for his sanction. The second precedent is to be observed specially at the agreement as to the proportion of the contributions to the costs of the common affairs.

*Note.*—(1) A deputation of fifteen members is to be despatched from the Reichsrath for the negotiation by deputation which takes place in conformity with Section 36 of the Law of December 21, 1867, No. 146, Imperial Statute Book, with a view to agreement as to the relative proportion of the contributions to the costs of the common affairs of the monarchy.

(2) In this deputation five members are to be elected from the House of Lords, ten members from the House of Deputies (Law of March 28, 1877, No. 23, Imperial Statute Book).

37. This law comes into operation together with the law relating to the alteration of the Fundamental Law of February 26, 1861, as to the imperial representation, and with the fundamental laws of the State on the general rights of citizens, on the administrative and executive powers, on the power of Judges, and on the installation of a Supreme Court of the Empire.

## II

STATUTE 44 OF THE YEAR 1868: THE HUNGARIAN  
LAW OF NATIONALITIES<sup>1</sup>

Since all citizens of Hungary, according to the principles of the constitution, form from a political point of view also one nation, the indivisible unitary Hungarian nation, of which every citizen of the fatherland is a member, no matter to what nationality he belongs ;

Since, moreover, the equality of right can only exist with reference to the official use of the various languages employed in the country, and can only fall under special rules so far as is rendered necessary by the unity of the country and the practical possibility of government and administration :

The following rules will serve as a standard with regard to the official use of the various languages, while in all other respects the complete equality of the citizen remains untouched :

1. Since by reason of the political unity of the nation the State language of Hungary is Magyar, the language of deliberation and business in the Hungarian Parliament is also in future Magyar. The laws will be promulgated in the Magyar language, but are also to be published in an authentic translation in the languages of all other nationalities inhabiting the country. The official language of the Government in all branches of the administration is in future also Magyar.

2. The minutes of the county assemblies (*Jurisdictionen*) are to be kept in the official language of the State, but they can also be kept at the same time in that language which at least one-fifth of the members of the body or commission representing the jurisdiction desires to be the language of the minutes.

If divergencies occur between the different texts, the Magyar text is authoritative.

3. In the assemblies of the jurisdictions, every one who possesses the right to speak in them can speak either in Magyar or in his mother tongue, if that tongue is not Magyar.

4. The jurisdictions, in their communications with the Government, employ the official language of the State, but they can also employ in a parallel column one of those languages which they use in their minutes. In communicating with each other, however, they can employ either the language of the State or one of those languages which has been adopted under Section 2 for the conduct of the minutes by that jurisdiction to which the communication is directed.

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from Drage, G., *Austria-Hungary*. London, 1909.

5. In the conduct of internal business the officials of the jurisdictions employ the language of the State. But in so far as this involves practical difficulties with regard to one or other jurisdiction or official, the officials in question can in exceptional cases employ one of the languages used for the minutes in their jurisdiction. Whenever, however, considerations of State supervision or administration demand it, their reports and official documents are to be submitted in the official language of the State also.

6. The officials of the jurisdictions, within the limits of their jurisdiction, in their official intercourse with the communes, assemblies, associations, institutions, and private individuals, employ, so far as possible, the language of the latter.

7. Every inhabitant of the country, in those cases in which, without the intervention of an advocate, he personally or through an attorney claims, or can claim, as plaintiff, defendant, or petitioner, the protection of the law and the help of the Judge, can employ—

(a) Before his own communal court, his mother tongue.

(b) Before any other communal court, the language of business or of the minutes of the commune in question.

(c) Before his own district court, the language of business or of the minutes of his own commune.

(d) Before any other courts, whether they belong to his own or to another jurisdiction, the language of the minutes employed by that jurisdiction to which the court in question belongs.

8. In cases to which Section 7 applies, the Judge deals with the charge or the petition in the language of the charge or the petition. He conducts in the language of the parties at law or the parties cited both the hearing of parties and witnesses, the examination in court and other legal functions of the Judge, both in civil cases, whether contested or not, and in criminal proceedings; but he conducts the reports of the trial in the language which the parties at law choose by mutual understanding from among the languages in which the minutes are conducted in the jurisdiction. Should an understanding not be reached in this connection, then the Judge can conduct the report of the trial in one of the languages used for the minutes in the jurisdiction, but is bound to declare its contents to the parties, if necessary, even by the help of an interpreter.

In the same way, the Judge is bound to declare or to get interpreted to the parties the most important documents of the trial, if these should be written in a language which one or other of the parties does not understand.

The writ of summons is, in the interests of the party to be



summoned, to be drawn up in his mother tongue, if this can at once be ascertained ; but otherwise in the language used for the minutes in the commune in which the party to be summoned dwells, or else in the official language of the State.

The decision of the Judge is to be pronounced in the language in which the reports of the trial were drawn up ; but the Judge is bound to announce or publish it to each individual party in the language which the latter desires, in so far as the language is one of the languages used for the minutes by the local body (*Municipium*) to which the Judge belongs.

9. In all those civil and criminal actions which are to be conducted subject to the intervention of an advocate, the hitherto prevailing practice both as to the language in which the trial is to be conducted and as to the language in which the verdict is to be pronounced will be everywhere maintained in courts of first instance so long as the legislature does not come to any decision regarding the final organization of the courts of first instance and the introduction of oral proceedings.

10. The Church courts themselves prescribe their language of business.

11. In the land registration offices, the business language of the particular court is to be used for the conduct of their business ; but, if the parties demand it, both the decision and the abstract (*Auszug*) are to be given in the official language of the State or in one of the languages used for the minutes of the local body (*Municipium*) in whose territory the registration office is situated.

12. In appealed cases which were not conducted in the Magyar language, or in which certain of the documents are not Magyar, the Court of Appeal gets the records of the trial and the documents, so far as is necessary, translated into Magyar by those accredited translators who are to be appointed at the expense of the State at the Courts of Appeal, and brings up the action for trial in this attested translation. The Court of Appeal will always draw up its decrees, resolutions, and judgments, in the official language of the State.

When the case has gone down (*herabgelangt*) to the competent court of first instance, the latter will be bound to announce or publish the decree, resolution, or judgment, to each party in the language in which the latter demands it, provided that this language is the business language of the court or a language of the minutes in the local body (*Municipium*).

13. The official language of all courts which are appointed by the Government is exclusively Magyar.

14. The Church congregation can, without infringement of the legal rights of their ecclesiastical superiors, prescribe,



according to their pleasure, the language in which the registers are to be drawn up and in which the Church affairs are to be conducted, and, further, within the limits of the Education Act, the language of instruction in their schools.

15. The higher Church corporations and authorities themselves determine the language of deliberation, of the minutes, of the conduct of business, and of intercourse with their parishes, If this should not happen to be the official language of the State, then, from consideration of State supervision, the minutes are to be submitted in an authentic translation in the language of the State also.

When the different Churches or higher ecclesiastical authorities communicate with one another, they employ either the official language of the State or the language of the Church with which they are communicating.

16. The upper and supreme Church authorities, in their memorials to the Government, can make use either of their business language or their language of minutes, adding in parallel columns the official language of the State. In their memorials to the local bodies (*Municipien*) and their organs they can use the language of the State, or, when the minutes are in several languages, one of these ; but the Church congregation, in their official intercourse with the Government and with their own jurisdictions, can use the official language of the State or their own business language, while in their intercourse with other jurisdictions they can employ one of the languages used for its minutes.

17. So far as the law does not make provision, the right of deciding the language of instruction in those schools which have already been erected by the State or the Government, or which may be in future erected as need arises, forms part of the duties of the Minister of Education. But since from the standpoint of general culture and the commonweal the success of public instruction is one of the highest objects of the State also, the State is bound to insure that citizens, of whatever nationality, living together in considerable numbers, shall be able to obtain instruction in their mother tongue in the neighbourhood of the district where they live, up to the point where higher academic education begins.

18. In the secondary and higher educational institutions belonging to the State which at present exist, or may in future be erected in districts where more than one language is in general use, chairs of languages and literature are to be established for each of these languages.

19. In the National University the language of the lectures is Magyar. At the same time, chairs are to be established for

the languages employed in the country and for their literatures, in so far as such chairs have not already been established.

20. The communal assemblies themselves choose the language of their business and minutes. The minutes are also to be kept in that language which one-fifth of the voting members regards as necessary.

21. The communal officials are bound in their intercourse with persons belonging to the commune to use the language of the latter.

22. In its memorials to its local body (*Municipium*) and the latter's organs, and to the Government, the commune can employ the official language of the State or its own business language ; in its memorials to other local assemblies and their organs, either the official language of the State or one of the languages in which the local body in question keeps its minutes.

23. Every citizen of the country can submit his memorials to his own commune, to his ecclesiastical authorities, to his local body (*Municipium*) and its organs, and to the Government, in his mother tongue.

In his memorials to other communes or local bodies (*Municipien*) and their organs, he can employ either the official language of the State or the language of the minutes, or one of the languages used for its minutes by the commune or local body in question.

The use of languages in the administration of justice is regulated by Sections 7 to 13.

24. In communal and Church assemblies, those who have the right to speak can freely use their mother tongue.

25. When private persons, Churches, private societies, or educational institutions and communes lacking autonomy, do not, in their memorials to the Government, employ the official language of the State, the Magyar original text of the document dealing with such memorials is to be supplemented by an authentic translation in the language of the memorial.

26. As hitherto so in the future, both individual citizens, communes, Churches, and congregations, of whatever nationality, shall have the right to erect by their own exertions, and in the way of association, both elementary, secondary, and higher educational institutions. With this object, and for the erection of other institutions which advance the cause of language, art, science, agriculture, industry, and commerce, the individual citizens can, subject to the legal control of the State, join together in societies and leagues, can draw up statutes, and, after the Government has sanctioned these statutes, can act in accordance with them ; they can also collect money funds, and can, subject to Government control,

administer these funds in conformity with their lawful national claims.

Educational and other institutions which have been founded in this manner enjoy equal rights with State institutions of a similar character, but the schools only in the event of the provisions of the Law of Public Instruction being observed.

The language of private institutions and societies is prescribed by the founders.

The societies and the institutions founded by them communicate with one another in their own language ; in their intercourse with others, the provisions of Section 23 are decisive with regard to the use of language.

27. Since in future, also, personal capacity will be the decisive factor in the filling of offices, a person's nationality cannot be regarded as an obstacle to his appointment to an office or dignity in the country. On the contrary, the Government will take care that, in the judicial and administrative offices of the country, especially in the office of Lord Lieutenant, persons of the various nationalities shall, so far as possible, be employed who possess the necessary linguistic knowledge to a full degree, and who are also otherwise qualified.

28. The provision of the older laws which conflict with the above regulations are hereby annulled.

29. The provisions of this law do not extend to Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, which possess a special territory and form politically a special nation ; for these (countries) the decision in matters of language will depend upon the agreement which has been reached between the Hungarian Parliament on the one hand, and the Croato-Slavonian Parliament on the other hand, by right of which the deputies of these countries may, in the joint Hungaro-Croatian Parliament, speak in their mother tongue also.

### III

#### THE AUSTRO-GERMAN ALLIANCE, 1879<sup>1</sup>

[This Treaty was published officially by Bismarck in 1888.]

Whereas their Majesties the German Emperor, King of Prussia, and the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary, must regard it as their unavoidable duty as monarchs to take care, under all circumstances, of the safety of their realms and the quietude of their peoples ; whereas, further, the two monarchs will be able, as in their former relation as members of the German Confederation, to perform this duty more easily and effectively by the firm co-operation of the two Empires ; and

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from the *Annual Register*, 1888, p. 284.



whereas, finally, a cordial co-operation of Germany and Austria-Hungary can menace no one, but is calculated on the contrary, to fortify the European peace created by the Treaty of Berlin, their Majesties the German Emperor and the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary, solemnly promise one another that they will never give to their purely defensive agreement an aggressive tendency in any direction, and have resolved to conclude an alliance of peace and mutual defence. To this end . . . their Plenipotentiaries . . . have agreed as follows :

ART. I.—Should, contrary to the hope and the sincere wish of the two illustrious contracting parties, one of the two Empires be attacked by Russia, the illustrious contracting parties are bound to assist one another with the whole military power of their Empires, and, as a consequence of this, to conclude peace only in common, and in agreement.

ART. II. Should one of the illustrious contracting parties be attacked by another Power, the other august party hereby binds himself not only not to assist the aggressor against his august ally, but to observe at least an attitude of friendly neutrality towards the latter. If, however, in such a case the aggressor should be supported by Russia either in the form of active co-operation or by military measures threatening the party attacked, the obligation stipulated in Art. I of this Treaty, to assist one another with full military strength, at once becomes binding, and the conduct of the war by the two august contracting parties then becomes common till a common conclusion of peace.

ART. III. This Treaty shall, in accordance with its peaceful character, and in order to exclude every misinterpretation, be kept secret by both august contracting parties, and communicated to a third Power only by consent of both. The two august contracting parties, in view of the sentiments expressed by the Emperor Alexander at the meeting in Alexandrovo, cherish the hope that the Russian military preparations will not really prove threatening to them, and have, therefore, no occasion at present to make any communication on the subject ; but should this hope, contrary to expectation, prove erroneous, the two august contracting parties would regard it as a duty of honour to inform the Emperor Alexander, at least confidentially, that they must regard an attack on one of them as an attack on both.

As witness whereof, the Plenipotentiaries have signed this Treaty with their own hands, and attached their seals.

Done at Vienna, 7th of October, 1879.

HENRY VII, REUSS.  
ANDRÁSSY.



## IV

## PARTIAL TEXT OF THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE, 1882

[Austrian White Paper, published in *Vossische Zeitung*, May 27, 1915.]

CLAUSE III.—In case one or two of the high contracting parties, without direct provocation on their part, should be attacked by one or more Great Powers not signatory of the present Treaty and should become involved in a war with them, the *casus foederis* would arise simultaneously for all the high contracting parties.

CLAUSE IV.—In case a Great Power not signatory of the present Treaty should threaten the State security of one of the high contracting parties, and in case the threatened party should thereby be compelled to declare war against that Great Power, the two other contracting parties engage themselves to maintain benevolent neutrality towards their Ally. Each of them reserves its right, in this case, to take part in the war if it thinks fit in order to make common cause with its Ally.

CLAUSE VII.—Austria-Hungary and Italy, who have solely in view the maintenance, as far as possible, of the territorial *status quo* in the East, engage themselves to use their influence to prevent all territorial changes which might be disadvantageous to the one or the other of the Powers signatory of the present Treaty. To this end they will give reciprocally all information calculated to enlighten each other concerning their own intentions and those of other Powers. Should, however, the case arise that, in the course of events, the maintenance of the *status quo* in the territory of the Balkans or of the Ottoman coasts and islands in the Adriatic or the Aegean Seas, becomes impossible, and that, either in consequence of the action of a third Power or for any other reason, Austria-Hungary or Italy should be obliged to change the *status quo* for their part by a temporary or permanent occupation, such occupation would only take place after previous agreement between the two Powers, which would have to be based upon the principle of a reciprocal compensation for all territorial or other advantages that either of them might acquire over and above the existing *status quo*, and would have to satisfy the interests and rightful claims of both parties.

## V

PARTIAL TEXT OF THE 'REINSURANCE'  
TREATY, 1887

Published in *Allgemeine Zeitung*, Sept. 12, 1919. The following is a translation of the passage in the *A. Z.* as given in *The Times*, Sept. 13, 1919.]

The Treaty is dated June 18, 1887; and, as an inseparable part of this Treaty, there was created on the same day a quite secret supplementary protocol which was also signed in Berlin. The Treaty was signed on the Russian side by Count Paul Schuvaloff (then Russian Ambassador in Berlin), and on the German side by the son of the State Chancellor, Count Herbert Bismarck, who at that time was State Secretary for Foreign Affairs. The treaty was concluded for three years. The most important stipulations say:

ARTICLE 1.—In case one of the high contracting parties should find itself in a state of war with a third Great Power, the other will observe a benevolent neutrality and make every effort to localize the struggle. This stipulation shall not apply to a war against France or Austria in case such a war is brought about by an attack of one of the high contracting parties upon one of these two Powers.

ARTICLE 2.—Germany recognizes the historically-acquired rights of Russia to the Balkan peninsula, and especially the legitimacy of her predominant and decided influence in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia. Both Courts pledge themselves not to permit any alteration in the territorial *status quo* of the peninsula mentioned without previous agreement, and in case of necessity to oppose every attempt to prejudice this *status quo* or to alter it without their consent.

ARTICLE 3.—The two Courts recognize the European and mutually binding character of the principle of the closing of the Straits of the Bosphorus and of the Dardanelles, which is founded on international law, confirmed by treaties, and comprised in the declaration made by the second plenipotentiary of Russia at the sitting of the Berlin Congress of July 12 (protocol 19). They will together take care that Turkey shall not make any exceptions to this rule in favour of any Government whatever, or abandon that part of her Empire which is formed by the Straits for the military operations of a Power at war. In case of violation, or in order to prevent a threatened violation, the two Courts will declare to Turkey that, if such a case should arise, they would consider her as being at war with

the violated parts and look upon the guarantee of safety to her territorial *status quo* in the Berlin Treaty as having become valid.

The secret supplementary treaty states further that Germany, as heretofore, will assist Russia in order to re-establish in Bulgaria an orderly and regular Government, and promises not under any circumstances to give her approval to the reinstatement of the Prince of Battenberg. Germany furthermore promises benevolent neutrality and moral and diplomatic support to the measures which Russia might consider necessary in order to retain the key to its Empire in its own hands, in case Russia should be brought by necessity, for the sake of upholding her rights, to undertake the task of defending the entrance to the Black Sea.

BOHEMIA  
AND  
MORAVIA

LONDON :  
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1920









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## GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

### *BOHEMIA*

#### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

BOHEMIA, which is the most important province of Austria, is shaped like an irregular diamond, its four points squaring almost exactly with those of the compass. It has an area of 20,058 square miles, and lies between  $48^{\circ} 33'$  and  $51^{\circ} 3'$  north latitude and  $12^{\circ} 5'$  and  $16^{\circ} 51'$  east longitude, being bounded on the north-west by Saxony, on the north-east by Prussian Silesia, on the east and south-east by Moravia and lower Austria, on the south by upper Austria, and on the south-west by Bavaria. It is entirely surrounded by mountains which form steep ranges, except on the east. Starting from its most westerly point on the Bavarian border, the northern boundary runs north-east along the Erzgebirge to the Elbe, which it crosses just above Herrenskretchen. A little farther on the frontier makes a sharp bend to its most northerly point, Buchberg, which is also the most northerly point in the Austrian Empire. The eastern boundary runs along the range of the Sudetes, then, leaving these in the neighbourhood of the Schneeberg, it runs in a southerly direction to the Zwittawa, and then south-west along the Bohemian-Moravian Highlands, continuing through mountainous country till it turns north-west along the Böhmerwald. It continues to follow these mountains and the Fichtelgebirge until it reaches its most westerly point in the Asch region, the little



wedge of Bohemia that runs in between Bavaria and Saxony. The one important outlet to the north is the Elbe valley, while the Böhmerwald is cut in two by the Neepomuk, Neugedein, or Neumark Pass (1,473 ft., 448 m.) near Taus (Domažliče), which has always been the main highway to the kingdom from the south-west. Thus Bohemia is naturally cut off from the rest of Europe, except where its frontier marches with that of Moravia on the east.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

Bohemia may be regarded as the basin of the upper Elbe and its tributaries. The land slopes from south to north, Herrenskretschin, where the Elbe enters Saxony, being the lowest point, 367 ft. (111 m.).

The Erzgebirge (Rudo Hori) in the north-west, with their rounded tops, rise steeply above the Eger, but slope gently on the Saxon side. Their average height is about 2,600 ft. (800 m.), and they have a length of some 87 miles. The Keilberg (4,080 ft., 1,243 m.) is the highest point, rising above Gottesgab (3,375 ft., 1,028 m.), which is said to be the highest town in Europe.

To the east of the Erzgebirge are the Elbsandstein-gebirge, through the extreme left portion of which flows the Elbe, and beyond these the Sudetes run south-east. They are divided into the Lausitzergebirge, the Isergebirge, the Jeschkengebirge, running south-east, the Riesengebirge, whose highest point is the Schneekoppe (5,260 ft., 1,603 m.), the highest mountain in Bohemia, and the Böhmischer Kamm (Adlergebirge), which runs south-east to the Moravian frontier. The average height of these chains ranges from 2,500 ft. to about 3,500 ft. (750–1,050 m.).

The Böhmerwald is divided into two parts by the Neepomuk Pass. The northern Böhmerwald (Ceskýles) extends for 25 miles to the neighbourhood of Klentsch. It consists of a mass of ridges and rounded tops, Cerkow (3,300 ft., 1,006 m.), its highest point, rising above the pass. The southern Böhmerwald (Sumava), with a length of 78 miles to the Kuschwarda Pass (2,640 ft., 804 m.), forms a great wall of some 4,000 ft. (1,200 m.). The Eisenstein Pass (3,123 ft., 951 m.) divides it into two parts. North-west of Waldsassen are the Fichtelgebirge.

There are several mountain areas in the interior. In the north-west lies the extensive plateau, of which the Kaiserwald and the Teplergebirge are the most notable divisions. The Mittelgebirge, pierced by the Elbe, lies to the north, while between Pilsen and Prague is the Brdywald, the highest of the internal ranges, where the climate is consequently severe. With the exception of the Kaiserwald, these mountains are rarely over 3,000 ft. (900 m.) high.

In the south-east lies the Wittingau plain with its many lakes. A line drawn through Hohenmauth, Prague, and Komotau roughly divides the southern highlands from the northern lowlands and the great plain north of Prague. Of the land west of the Moldau and south of Königsaal three-quarters is more or less mountainous. Only the Pilsen and Budweis plains are not mountain plateaux, and they are both hilly.

In spite of the extent of its mountains, Bohemia is among the most fertile parts of the Austrian Empire. Every inch of the great plain of the north is cultivated ; only a few trees appear upon it here and there east of Prague. The Saaz hop district, the Leitmeritz and Tepl districts, and the Goldene Rute round Königgrätz are famous. Hardly less fertile are the valleys of the more important rivers, notably of the Eger and the

Beraun. The Pilsen plain, watered by its four rivers, and the Budweis plain are less rich. The slopes of the mountains are also cultivated to the highest possible limit. The water-supply is nearly everywhere ample throughout the year. It is not plentiful in the Dauba region, with its important hop-fields, but the difficulty has been largely overcome by the construction of wells and other means.

### *River System*

All the rivers of Bohemia have their sources within its boundaries. The centre of the main drainage system is the Elbe (Labe), which carries virtually all the waters of the country into Germany. The Elbe is navigable for 68 miles above its confluence with the Moldau, but rafts can be floated down from a much greater distance. It rises in the Riesengebirge and, after receiving the Adler on its left bank, flows roughly north-west through the great northern plain and then through the Mittelgebirge. The Iser and the Polzen are large tributaries on the right, but far more important are the Eger, which enters the Elbe at Leitmeritz, with its confluent the Tepl, and the Biela, which drain the north-western area of Bohemia.

The Moldau (Vltava) is undoubtedly the most important of Bohemian rivers. It has a greater volume of water than the Elbe at their confluence, and is 270 miles long, 47 miles longer than the upper Elbe, while its basin is twice as large. It rises in the Böhmerwald, flowing south-east between the two main ridges to the neighbourhood of Hohenfurth, where it turns in a northerly direction, flowing through a deep narrow valley to Prague. Below Prague the valley opens out and there are numerous islands. The Moldau enters the Elbe at Melnik. It is navigable for boats from

Budweis and for steamers from Prague, below which town it is canalized and has a depth of 7 ft.

The chief tributaries of the Moldau on the right are the Lužnice (Luschnitz) and the Sazawa, which is navigable for 88 miles; on the left the Wattawa (Wottawa) and the Beraun. The Beraun, which is the third largest river in Bohemia, and is navigable for 25 miles, is formed at Pilsen by the junction of four rivers—the Mies from the west, the Radbusa, the Angel, and the Uslova from the south. It enters the Moldau below Königsaal.

The Langenbrücker Teich, near Oberplan, is the largest lake in Bohemia, but small lakes are numerous, especially in the Wittingau region, and in the Binnenland, in the north-east.

## MORAVIA

### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

Moravia lies between  $48^{\circ} 40'$  and  $50^{\circ} 14'$  north latitude and  $15^{\circ} 5'$  and  $18^{\circ} 45'$  east longitude. It is bounded on the west by Bohemia, on the north and north-east by Prussian and Austrian Silesia, on the east by Galicia, on the east and south-east by Hungary, and on the south by lower Austria.

On leaving the Bohemian frontier by the Schneeberg, the Moravian boundary runs north-east to its most northerly point in the neighbourhood of Weisswasser. From here it runs south-east along the Altvater range and the Gesenke (branches of the Sudetes) to the neighbourhood of Weisskirchen. It next swings round north-east, making two important dips to the north, and then follows the Oder till it doubles back along its tributary, the Ostrawitz, up to the White Carpathians. Thence it follows in a south-westerly direction, but ultimately sweeps round to the north-west to enter the valley of the March. Here the



boundary first follows the March, then trends north-west along its tributary, the Thaya. The Thaya valley forms in general the southern boundary of Bohemia, though the line does not always follow it closely, as far as Fratting. Here the boundary crosses the Thaya, continuing in a north-westerly direction as far as the Hoherstein in the Bohemian-Moravian Highlands. With these it holds a generally north and north-easterly direction till it runs up the valley of the upper March to the Schneeberg.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

Like Bohemia, Moravia is virtually surrounded by mountains, but, unlike Bohemia, it slopes from north to south. Its area is about 8,580 square miles. Moravia may be regarded as the basin of the March, into which virtually all the other rivers of the country drain.

The range of the Sudetes, which forms the north-eastern boundary of Moravia, reaches its highest point in the Altvater (4,887 ft., 1,489 m.) and Schneeberg (4,664 ft., 1,421 m.), falling gradually away through the Hohes Gesenke and Niederes Gesenke to the Oder. The north-western limit of the Hohes Gesenke is the Spornhau Pass (3,030 ft., 923 m.), over which runs the railway. With the exception of one or two peaks, the Gesenke is never much over 3,000 ft. (900 m.) in height. On the southern border are heights of over 3,000 ft. (900 m.), which shut out the warm breezes of the south. The Bohemian-Moravian Highlands in the west have an average height of 1,500–2,000 ft. (450–600 m.), and throw out a number of spurs into Moravia. In the south-east are the Mars Gebirge (1,915 ft., 584 m.), and the Steinitzterwald (1,450 ft., 440 m.), which run parallel to the White

Carpathians. The centre of Moravia consists of the March plain, extending from the western mountains to the Bohemian-Moravian Highlands.

### *River System*

Moravia is drained almost entirely by the March (Morava), for the Vistula and the Oder do little more than rise within its borders. The March rises on the Spieglitzer Schneeberg and flows right through the country from north to south, finally carrying its waters down the Austro-Hungarian boundary to the Danube. Its chief tributaries are, on the right bank, the Thaya and the Hanna, and on the left bank the Beczwa, the Iglawa, the Zwittawa, and the Schwarzawa. The last two rivers cut deep valleys through the region known as Moravian Switzerland.

Most of the tributaries of the March are rapid, as is the March itself in its upper course. In its lower course it becomes sluggish, dividing round islands and possessing all the characteristics of a river of the plain. It has not yet been regulated for purposes of navigation, but may be regarded as navigable—the only river in Moravia of which this can be said. The Moravian rivers are easily bridged. Even at Olmütz the March is only about 100 yds. broad.

## BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA

### (3) CLIMATE

Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and western Galicia form a climatic whole, characterized by evenly-distributed humidity of the atmosphere, an adequate rainfall, and severe winter storms. The continental character of the climate increases from west to east.

The climate of Bohemia and Moravia differs in different regions. In Bohemia the most marked pecu-

liarity is that, owing to the slope of the ground, the climate of the north is much milder than that of the south. The reverse is the case in Moravia. The central basin of Bohemia, with the March and Thaya valleys, contains the warmest and driest regions. The vine flourishes here in latitude  $50^{\circ}$  north. In the mountains which feel the full force of the north and north-east winds the winters are snowy, the summers wet. The following are average temperatures in the coldest and hottest months of the year, namely: (a) in the plain region—Prague, January,  $29.5^{\circ}$  F. ( $-1.5^{\circ}$  C.), July,  $67^{\circ}$  F. ( $19.4^{\circ}$  C.); Lobositz,  $28^{\circ}$  F. ( $-2.2^{\circ}$  C.),  $66.2^{\circ}$  F. ( $19^{\circ}$  C.); Bodenbach,  $30^{\circ}$  F. ( $-1.1^{\circ}$  C.),  $18^{\circ}$  F. ( $-7.7^{\circ}$  C.); Brünn,  $27.5^{\circ}$  F. ( $-2.5^{\circ}$  C.),  $66.2^{\circ}$  F. ( $19^{\circ}$  C.): (b) in the mountain regions—Eger,  $26.6^{\circ}$  F. ( $-3^{\circ}$  C.),  $63.5^{\circ}$  F. ( $17.5^{\circ}$  C.); Tepl,  $26.5^{\circ}$  F. ( $-3^{\circ}$  C.),  $59^{\circ}$  F. ( $15^{\circ}$  C.); Hohenfurt,  $24.8^{\circ}$  F. ( $-4^{\circ}$  C.),  $62.6^{\circ}$  F. ( $17^{\circ}$  C.); Deutsch-Brod,  $26^{\circ}$  F. ( $-3.3^{\circ}$  C.),  $63.5^{\circ}$  F. ( $17.5^{\circ}$  C.). The number of days when the thermometer falls below freezing-point varies from 58 at Leitmeritz and 84 in the north-west to over 95 in the south-west and over 100 in the north-east.

The rainfall varies greatly in different years in different regions, but drought never causes serious harm, partly because the hottest months are the wettest, partly because the average humidity of the air is high and even and there is no extreme summer heat. The average precipitation in Bohemia and Moravia is 25 in. (635 mm.). It varies from 18 in. (457 mm.) in Prague and the central regions to 40 in. (1,016 mm.) in the Riesengebirge and 60 or 70 in. (1,500–1,800 mm.) in the Böhmerwald. At Budweis it is 26 in. (660 mm.), at Brünn 19 in. (483 mm.), at Eisenstein 63 in. (1,600 mm.). In the Böhmerwald the snow is often 12 ft. deep.

West winds are the commonest, and to their preva-

lence the climate owes much of its humidity. The north-west wind is especially common in summer, and generally brings rain.

#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate of Bohemia and Moravia is healthy, but the housing conditions of the poor in the towns are often bad. Consumption is the great scourge, accounting in Bohemia for 148·4 per 1,000 of the deaths, while 71·4 are due to pneumonia. The corresponding figures for Moravia are even higher. The rate of infantile mortality among the Germans in the German districts is 25 per cent., in the mixed districts 24 per cent.; among the Czechs 21 per cent. everywhere.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The division between German and Czech is, on the whole, clearly marked in Bohemia. Roughly speaking, north of a line drawn from Taus (south-west of Pilsen) to Laun (north-west of Prague), and from Laun to Gablonz, is a solid mass of Germans (over 95 per cent.). A very narrow belt of mixed population separates this German zone from the solid Czech area to the south. Further, a narrow belt of mixed population extends along the south-western frontier of Bohemia and through southern Moravia with an extension northwards, which embraces Brünn (an almost purely German town). The same blending appears along the north-eastern frontier of Bohemia and through the north of Moravia, where it extends far enough south to include Zwittau and Olmütz. Elsewhere, throughout the central portions of both provinces, the Czechs form over 95 per cent. of the population, except in



the German island, including Deutsch-Brod and Iglau, which lies just on the boundary of the two.<sup>1</sup> The 1910 census gives for Bohemia about 4,242,000 Czechs to 2,468,000 Germans, or 63 per cent. Czechs to 37 per cent. Germans. In Moravia the figures were approximately 1,869,000 Czechs to 719,000 Germans, or 72 per cent. Czechs to 28 per cent. Germans.

Czech is a western Slav dialect, akin to Polish. The Czechs who settled round Prague were the leading Slav tribe in Bohemia from the first, and the central dialect is the foundation of Czech to this day. With slight variations, it is spoken throughout Bohemia. The western Moravian dialect is closely allied to Czech. The dialects more to the east present greater divergences. Czech is the literary language in both countries. The opening of the Czech university at Prague has been of great assistance in unifying the language and breaking down the barriers of dialect. At present all the Slavs in the two countries understand and speak Czech, even the Croatians in the three Croatian villages near Lundenburg, in the extreme south of Moravia. Bohemia is the centre of a flourishing literary movement, which has been closely linked with the national movement from the first.

Both racially and linguistically the Czechs are intimately related to the Slovachs who lie immediately to the east over the Hungarian border.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

Bohemia and Moravia form part of the densely populated belt that stretches through central Europe

<sup>1</sup> Reference should be made to the Ethnological Map of Austria-Hungary accompanying this series. It should also be noted that the German claims in north-western Bohemia, as shown on the map, are to some extent disputed.

from Hanover to Kieff. The total population of Bohemia in 1910 was 6,769,548, or 337 to the square mile; of Moravia, 2,622,271, or 305 to the square mile. In Bohemia the population is most dense in the industrial regions of the north-west, north-east, and east, as well as round Prague and Pilsen; it is scantiest in the agricultural west and south. In Moravia the greatest density lies round Olmütz and to the west and south of that town, and also round Brünn, Göding, and Ungarisch-Hradisch. The region round Römerstadt and Bärn is most thinly inhabited. In Bohemia 35 per cent. of the population are employed in agriculture, in Moravia and Silesia 50 per cent.

### *Towns*

In Bohemia there are thirteen towns of over 20,000 inhabitants, and thirty towns with a population of between 10,000 and 20,000. Prague (Praha) is by far the largest city and the industrial as well as the political capital. With its suburbs it contains nearly 600,000 inhabitants, of whom 6 per cent. are Germans. Next in point of size are Pilsen (80,343) and Budweis (44,538). Reichenberg (36,350, and with suburbs 70,000) on the Neisse, a cloth and spinning centre, is the German capital.

Moravia contains six towns with over 20,000, nine with between 10,000 and 20,000 inhabitants. The capital, Brünn (Brno, 125,737), is the largest town in the country. It lies between the Schwarza and the Zwittawa, in a fertile valley, and is now the chief cloth-manufacturing town in the empire. The coal-mining and manufacturing town of Mährisch-Ostrau in the east has a population of 59,905. Olmütz (22,245) and Iglau (25,914) are the other most important towns.

*Movement*

Between 1880 and 1910 the population of Bohemia rose from  $5\frac{1}{2}$  millions to  $6\frac{3}{4}$  millions, an increase of only 23 per cent. Between 1900 and 1910 the mean annual birth-rate among the Czechs was 30·5 per 1,000, the death-rate 20·8. In the mixed regions, which contain about 1,500,000 inhabitants, the natural increase of the population is higher than elsewhere. In these regions the Czechs are steadily gaining ground.

In Moravia among the Czechs the birth-rate was 37·0 per 1,000, the death-rate 22·4, the natural increase 14·6. Among the Germans in both Bohemia and Moravia the birth-rate was 31·4 per 1,000, the death-rate 22·1, the natural increase 9·3 per 1,000.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 450. Slav tribes settle in Bohemia.
- 627. Reign of Samo.
- 864. Conversion to Christianity of Moravia and Bohemia.
- 11th century. Moravia incorporated with Bohemia.
- 1253-78. Reign of Ottokar II.
- 1346-78. Reign of Charles IV.
- 1415. Burning of Hus.
- 1420. Papal Crusade against Bohemia.
- 1436. Council of Basel grants Compactata.
- 1481. Serfdom introduced.
- 1526. Battle of Mohács. Accession of Ferdinand of Habsburg.
- 1564. Death of Ferdinand of Habsburg.
- 1609. 'Letter of Majesty.' *Confessio Bohemica* approved by Rudolf of Habsburg. Truce between Catholics and other religious bodies.
- 1620. Battle of the White Mountain. Absolutism established. Protestants expelled.
- 1627. Abrogation of the Constitution.
- 1781. Joseph II's decree of Toleration and other reforms.
- 1804. Francis II becomes Emperor Francis I of Austria.
- 1831. Foundation of the *Matice Česka*.
- 1848. Revolution in Bohemia.
- 1860. Diet restored. Reichsrat established.
- 1867. Establishment of Dual System.
- 1869. Hus Quingenary.
- 1871-8. Attempts at conciliation.
- 1880. Taaffe's concessions.
- 1883. Czech majority in Diet.
- 1890. Proposed compromise between Czechs and Germans rejected.
- 1893. State of siege in Prague.
- 1897. Badeni's linguistic proposals.
- 1900. Von Körber's Ministry.
- 1907. Universal Suffrage.
- 1911. Thun becomes Viceroy.
- 1913. Diet suspended.



*Origins.*—The Boii, who gave their name to Bohemia, are the first known inhabitants of Bohemia and Moravia. Neither the Teutonic Marcomanni in Bohemia, nor the Lombards in Moravia, who succeeded them, were able to withstand the great Slav invasion from the east. The Czechs were the chief Slav tribe to settle in Bohemia, where they seem to have appeared about A. D. 450. Under a mysterious alien—Samo (A. D. 627)—their kingdom attained large dimensions. Again during the ninth century the Moravians under Svatopluk temporarily built up a powerful empire, which included much of the duchy of Austria and some of the Slovak districts in Hungary. The alliance of the Moravians with the Bulgars resulted in the conversion both of Moravia and Bohemia to Christianity by the Greek monks Cyril and Methodius (864). Early in the eleventh century Moravia was incorporated with Bohemia, where the Přemysl dynasty was already established, and therefore became part of the Empire.

*The German Immigration.*—During the eleventh and twelfth centuries German influence increased rapidly, thanks largely to Bohemia's connexion with the Empire. The priesthood was almost entirely German, for the Bishop of Prague was subordinate to the Archbishop of Mainz. The nobles frequently married German wives. Their children learnt German, which was the language of culture and ultimately became the Court language. The nobility had grown very powerful, owing to the large grants of land received from the successful candidates to the throne whom they supported. Hence, in the thirteenth century, the kings, and notably Ottokar II (1253–78), determined to counteract them by creating a strong German burgher class in the towns. The result was the gradual growth of a ring of German towns, especially in the north and the west, which administered the law for themselves. The

monasteries, being largely German, also encouraged Germans to settle on their vast undeveloped estates. The monks were the pioneers of the mining industry. From this time Bohemia became bilingual. Even the most ardent Czech nationalists admit the debt owed by the country to these settlers, whose influence was not due to their numbers, but to their superior culture. A similar process was leavening Moravia with Germans.

*The Czech Reaction.*—The growth of German influence created a reaction, which found its fullest expression in the Emperor Charles IV (1346–78). Though he belonged to the House of Luxemburg, he was a Czech at heart. In his reign Moravia and Silesia, as well as Upper Lusatia, Brandenburg, and Glatz, were, with the consent of their Diets, declared integral and inalienable parts of Bohemia. Charles IV founded the University of Prague, the first not merely in the Slav but in the German world, and also beautified the city, which he made the seat of an archbishopric. He placed the Czech and German languages on a footing of absolute equality, but used Czech at Court. Moreover, he was an advocate of Church reform. In fact, in his reign the Czech movement first took definite shape in both its aspects, religious and political.

*The Hussite Wars and their Consequences.*—These movements came to a head in the next reign under John Hus. The Hussite wars were racial wars. Hatred of German priests and nobles, even of German townsmen, was as strong as the desire for reform. To this day Hus's portrait hangs in the houses of patriotic priests. Hus did for Czech what Luther was to do for German. He began the reform of Slav spelling and wrote as much in Czech as in Latin. The cardinal point in the Hussite creed was the right of the laity to communicate in both kinds—the *utraquist* doctrine, as it is called. The burning of Hus as a heretic by the

Council of Constance in 1415 was the prelude to the inevitable struggle; and in 1420 the Pope proclaimed a crusade against Bohemia. But the heroic resistance of the nation convinced its enemies of the impossibility of subduing it by force at that time; and in 1436 the Council of Basel granted the chief demands of the Utraquists in the Compactata. There had been considerable dissension among the Bohemians themselves during the struggle; for the movement had developed democratic features. But the complete victory in a pitched battle of the Moderates over the Extremists or Taborites, who were the democratic party, did much to promote a settlement. That racial feeling ran as high as ever is proved by the fact that in 1436 the restored King, Sigismund, undertook to employ neither Germans nor Catholics in his councils. But the settlement was little more than a truce. George of Podebrad (1458–71), the only Hussite King of Bohemia, failed to induce the Popes to recognize the Compactata and was even excommunicated. Meanwhile the power of the nobles was increasing. In 1481 serfdom was introduced, and the privileges of the towns were much curtailed.

*Toleration under the Habsburgs.*—After the Turkish victory at Mohács in 1526, when Louis of Hungary and Bohemia was killed, Bohemia passed under the rule of the Habsburgs. Ferdinand was duly elected King, but he induced the Estates to grant him a charter, stating that he inherited the kingdom through his wife Anna, who was descended from the Přemysl dynasty. He was tolerant of the Utraquists, who were drawing closer to the Lutherans, and, just before his death in 1564, obtained permission from the Pope for the use of the Cup in Bohemia. But he persecuted the Bohemian Brethren; and this policy was continued by his son, Maximilian. After endless vacillation, Maximilian's

successor, Rudolf, recognized the *Confessio Bohemica*, a revised version of the Augsburg Confession. The 'Letter of Majesty' of 1609 gave freedom of conscience to all Bohemians, but freedom of worship only to members of the Assembly of Estates. In a separate treaty Catholics and Utraquists agreed to accord mutual respect to their divergent opinions.

*The Battle of the White Mountain and the Catholic Reaction.*—Ferdinand, Rudolf's successor; was known to be a fanatical Papist; and the Utraquists decided not to put off the struggle till he had secured the throne. But the days of the Hussite wars were gone with the disappearance of the sturdy, independent townsmen and peasants. On November 8, 1620, the Bohemians under the 'Winter King', Frederick the Elector Palatine, were utterly defeated at the White Mountain; and for two centuries Bohemia ceased to exist as a nation. The leaders were executed; and three-quarters of the land changed hands. The new nobility was almost entirely foreign. Ferdinand was determined to allow none but Catholics to exist in the country. He was ably seconded by his German agents, to whose religious fanaticism was united their hereditary hatred of the Slavs. The unfortunate serfs could not even leave the country, but were tortured into an outward conformity by their new masters.

*The Power of the Jesuits.*—Meanwhile the Jesuits carried on a ruthless war upon Bohemian literature, which was mainly religious in character. Konias rivalled the Khalif Omar by burning 60,000 volumes with his own hand. In no modern literature are so many books known to have disappeared. The entire education of the country, including the University of Prague, was put under Jesuit control. German and Latin alone were the languages of the schools. It is no



mere coincidence that the Czech revival began with the suppression of the Society of Jesus.

*Effects of the Change.*—By the end of the Thirty Years' War the population of Bohemia had fallen from 3,000,000 to 800,000. The leading merchants, many of them Germans, were in exile to a man. Large colonies of Bavarians and Austrian Germans were brought in to fill the gaps, and Bohemia became officially a bilingual country where the German landowners, who were a majority of their class, were estranged by religion and race from the peasantry on their estates.

*Constitutional Changes.*—In 1627 Ferdinand abrogated the Constitution and made the crown hereditary in the House of Habsburg. An estate of the clergy was added to the Diet and given the foremost rank. The Diet lost all legislative power, its discussions being confined to matters laid before it by the King. The Estates voted the taxes, but they might not attach any conditions to their grants. In order still further to weaken their power, Ferdinand forbade all joint sessions of the Diets of Bohemia, Moravia,<sup>1</sup> and Silesia.

*The Eighteenth Century.*—During the eighteenth century there is little to say of Bohemia, if we exclude prosecutions for heresy and an occasional revolt of the peasants against the brutal oppression of the overseers. The 'benevolent despotism' of Joseph II introduced fresh activity. With his contempt for historical tradition the Emperor not only refused to be crowned in Bohemia, but made German the language of the schools and the law-courts. On the other hand, he abolished the corvée and otherwise improved the lot of the peasants, and he granted religious toleration to both Lutherans and Calvinists. The result was that 70,000 inhabitants of Bohemia declared themselves

<sup>1</sup> Moravia is still an integral part of the kingdom of Bohemia, but the administration of the two countries is altogether independent.

Protestants, many families having secretly retained their faith since 1620, and that a number of German Protestants entered the country. Joseph also allowed the publication of Czech books and a Czech newspaper, while Czech professorships were endowed at Vienna and afterwards at Prague. In fact, his ordinances awakened an active linguistic patriotism among a few scholars. In 1790 a proposal was even made in the Diet that Czech should be restored in some of the higher schools. As the existence of Bohemia stands or falls with the use of Czech, the national revival may be said to have originated in Joseph's reign, though no one would have regarded it with less favour than he. But few of his reforms survived him; even the *corvée* was restored.

*The Early Nineteenth Century.*—In 1804, when, the Holy Roman Empire having disappeared, Francis II became Emperor of Austria, he declared that this new title in no way prejudiced the rights of Bohemia, and that his successors would continue to be crowned there.

After 1815 Bohemia felt the full weight of Metternich's system of espionage, while the way to intellectual progress was barred by a double censorship, both political and ecclesiastical. Before the reforms of Joseph members of the better classes often spoke Czech. But it had now become the dialect of the lower classes only, and was excluded from every school, law-court, and Government office. The Government indeed insisted on its being retained as a subject in the high schools, since it was necessary to procure a supply of officials able to converse with the peasantry in their own language. But German was without exception the language of all educated people. Dobrovsky, the pioneer of modern Czech scholarship, believed that Czech was doomed to disappear as a living speech. Even in 1831 the poet Jungmann could tell two friends

that, if the ceiling of the room they were in were to fall, there would be an end of Bohemian literature.

*The Linguistic and Literary Revival.*—But the romantic movement produced an atmosphere favourable to the revival. People in high places in Vienna began to take a patronizing interest in Czech and even to learn it. The Bohemian Museum was founded in 1818 amid universal approval; and in 1831 the *Matice Česka*, the Czech Literary Society, which was to encourage the printing of Czech books, was established. The movement was at first purely linguistic and literary. The task before the Bohemians was similar to that before the Finns and the other races which had ceased to have a history of their own. They were determined that Czech should be something more than a subject of exotic curiosity, like a new native dialect. It was to be restored to its position as a literary language by becoming the medium of intercourse among the middle and upper classes of the country. The work was of necessity one for scholars. Jungmann with his dictionary and grammar, Palacký the historian, and Safarik the scholar, though they often wrote in German, were the pioneers. Before 1815 they drew their inspiration from the French rationalists, and were Czechs rather than Slavs. After 1815 the prevailing note is an idealized Pan-Slavism, which is best embodied in the poet Kollar, a Slovak by birth. His Pan-Slav community is to be purely spiritual and intellectual. The branches of the Slav race are to be united by literary interests and a consciousness of their common origin. His regret at the submerging of the smaller Slav nations is altogether literary. He never dreamt of opposition to the authorities, and yet he wrote in continual fear of the censor, for the very use of the word Slav was becoming suspect. Kollar walked with his head in the clouds, but his work was invaluable in

rousing the Bohemians to a national consciousness and giving them confidence in their cause.

*The Political Awakening.*—Only after 1840 did the national movement begin to leaven the upper ranks of the middle and professional classes. Till then the national party was largely recruited among University students from the country districts. It was still bad form for a person belonging to the cultivated classes to address an equal in Czech or to speak it in the streets. But by 1840 the literary movement had done its work and given Czech an assured position. Nationalism now began to become a political doctrine. The Germans took alarm and their patronizing interest was converted into active hostility. Even the Estates, whose meetings had become proverbial for dullness, began to show signs of life. In 1845 they protested against the Governor's disposing of a house which belonged to them without going through the formality of consulting them. He was recalled in consequence. A committee was appointed to inquire into their rights, and in 1847 it pronounced them to be still of considerable extent. They might elect their king, if the Habsburg dynasty became extinct; and they alone could levy taxes in Bohemia. The declaration embodying the report was carried by a large majority. The Diet then decided to petition for an increase of town representatives, a more complete control of the finances, and the use of Czech in the higher schools. Meanwhile a brilliant young journalist, Charles Havlíček, cleverly attacked the Government in the form of reports on the condition of Ireland. So popular did the comparison become that a patriotic society called 'Repeal' was founded; and the comparison of Bohemia with Ireland has since become a commonplace.

*The Revolution of 1848.*—The year 1848 put an end



to Pan-Slav dreaming. The aims of the Bohemians became definitely Czech. The leader of the national party was the practical, statesman-like Palacky, who came to the front during the revolution. His gift for epigram enabled him to crystallize the aims of his party in a number of phrases which have since become proverbial. He refused to attend the Congress at Frankfurt in 1848, to which all nations belonging to the Germanic Confederation were invited to send deputies, on the ground that he was not a German but 'a Bohemian, belonging to the Slav race'. He was the life and soul of the Slav Congress at Prague, but he declared that 'if we must one day cease to be Czechs, it makes no difference to us whether we become Germans, Italians, Magyars, or Russians'. His proud belief in the destiny of his country is shown by his boast, 'Before Austria was, we were; and when Austria no longer is, we still shall be'. He was a Moravian by birth, and when Moravia, afraid of falling under the dominion of her powerful neighbour, had thoughts of following the example of the Slovaks and adopting her dialect as a separate language, he successfully opposed the project. Palacky's ideal was the restoration of the Constitution of 1627 with the introduction of a system of federation for Austria.

On March 11 a great public meeting in Prague voted a petition to the Government at Vienna, comprising fourteen articles. Their chief demands were that Czech should be placed on a footing of absolute equality with German; that a general Diet representing Moravia and Silesia, as well as Bohemia, should be convoked; and that the Bohemian land-laws should be drastically reformed. The first deputation produced no result, but on April 8 the Emperor promised a second deputation that the two nationalities should be placed on a footing of equality, that a general meeting of representatives

of all parts of Austria should decide the fate of Moravia and Silesia, and that a meeting of the Estates of Bohemia, including representatives from the towns and country districts, should soon be summoned and given full legislative power. The corvée was abolished, the landlords being duly compensated. This last was the one permanent reform resulting from the revolution of 1848.

The meeting of the Estates never took place, though the elections were held. Meanwhile the Czech leaders summoned to Prague a Slav congress which included representatives from all parts of Austria-Hungary, as well as some foreign Slavs as guests. Unfortunately the delegates were obliged to speak in German in order to be intelligible to each other. Prince Windischgrätz, a bigoted reactionary, was in command of the troops in Bohemia. Petty encounters between the citizens and the soldiers were of frequent occurrence. They culminated on June 12, 1848, in serious riots, wrongly supposed to have been planned and organized, which were only put down after considerable fighting and bloodshed. Prince Windischgrätz used them as a pretext for bombarding Prague, which was obliged to surrender unconditionally. Bohemian deputies continued to take part in the Constituent Assembly which met at Vienna and then at Kroměříč (Kremsier). But the defeat of the Hungarians in 1849 enabled the Emperor to get rid of it without difficulty.

*The Restoration of Absolutism.*—Absolute rule was now re-established. The censorship became stricter than ever, and severe measures were taken to repress the least signs of nationalist activity. German, of course, became the official language, and no other was officially recognized, except in the lowest classes of the schools. But the loss of Lombardy in 1859 necessitated some change of system. Diets not unlike that of Bohemia, with strictly limited powers, were granted to the various

provinces of Austria in 1860. In the following year a parliament was instituted in Vienna. Its members were to be chosen by the Diets, but the representation was so manipulated as largely to favour the Germans. In Bohemia a German deputy might represent 2,500 votes, a Czech 25,000. Naturally the Diet contained a large German majority. At first the Nationalists took part in the Reichsrat, thus adopting a policy for which they have been frequently blamed. But, when in 1863 it began to encroach upon the rights of the Diet, they withdrew.

*The Triumph of Dualism.*—The Czechs remained loyal to Austria in the war with Prussia in 1866, though not a few of the Bohemian Germans welcomed the invaders. The Treaty of Prague excluded all Austrian territories from the Germanic Confederation. The dual system was established in 1867, Hungary thus receiving as a punishment for her notorious disloyalty more than the other nationalities received as a reward for their fidelity. Bohemia's leaders failed to grasp the opportunity or to show the statesmanlike qualities of their Magyar rivals, Deák and Andrassy. Unfortunately, though the Czechs appear to possess more political ability than other Slavs, Bohemia did not afford them a training in practical affairs such as was to be had in the freer atmosphere of Hungary. Hitherto there had been little disloyalty to Austria. 'If there were no Austria, it would be necessary to create one,' said Palacky. But Francis Joseph's refusal to be crowned in Bohemia caused widespread disappointment and indignation. The Czechs not only again declined to send deputies to the Reichsrat, but in the declaration of August 1868 referred to the discrimination between Hungary and Bohemia, and claimed that Bohemia was only united to the rest of the monarchy by a personal tie, and that any constitutional change in the relations between Bohemia and

the Emperor must be based on a fresh contract between these two parties. Finally, the Czech deputies left the Diet. The laying of the foundation-stone of the national theatre in Prague in 1868 and the Hus quingenary of 1869 were made the occasions of great nationalist demonstrations in spite of the repressive measures of the Government.

*The Industrial Revolution.*—The industrial revolution, which had begun to transform Bohemia about 1860, was a distinct asset to the national cause. The Czech workmen stood opposed to their German masters. Instead of wishing to learn the German speech, the sense of solidarity produced by working in a factory, so different from the solitariness of the old peasant life, made them desire to obtain recognition for their own tongue and their own rights. They hated the nobles, the capitalists, and the German State which ignored them; and they began to talk Czech aggressively in public and to study its past. They were joined by the tradesmen and others whom luck or energy enabled to make money at this time. The elementary schoolmasters and the lower clergy were their natural leaders, since their callings brought them into closer touch with the proletariat than was the case with other members of the middle classes.

*Attempts at Conciliation.*—In 1871 Count Hohenwart, the new premier, endeavoured to come to terms with Bohemia, and prolonged negotiations were begun with that object. The Emperor's message to the Diet fully admitted the rights of the country, stating that 'in consideration of the former constitutional position of Bohemia, and remembering the glory and the power which her crown had given to his ancestors, remembering also the constant loyalty of her people, he gladly recognized the rights of the kingdom and was willing to confirm the assurance by taking the coro-



nation oath'. But the Czechs blindly threw away a great opportunity by refusing any terms except the recognition of Bohemia as a separate kingdom like Hungary. In the following year German influences triumphed. Nothing came of the proposed reforms. Then in 1873 the election of members of the Reichsrat was transferred from the Diet to the four classes of its constituents, the Diet thus being robbed of an effective means of opposition. The Slavs in the Reichsrat were bitterly hostile to the change, which they might have prevented by concerted action, since the Germans alone lacked the necessary two-thirds majority. But the Czech deputies again threw away their opportunity by refusing to sit in the Reichsrat, on the ground that it was illegally constituted. These events brought about the rise of the Young Czech party, which began to come into prominence by denouncing Francis Joseph's refusal to be crowned in Bohemia and by demanding a policy of action. In 1874 the Moravian deputies resumed their places in the Reichsrat. The Young Czechs followed their example by returning to the Diet, though they were in a hopeless minority. The death of Palacky, the leader of the passive resisters, resulted in the Old and the Young Czechs coming to an understanding and returning to the Diet in 1878.

In 1879 Count Taaffe came to power, and in the following year he induced the Czech deputies to attend the Reichsrat, though they were careful to state that they did so without prejudice to their rights. In return he gave them control of a number of schools, authorized the establishment of a Czech university in Prague, and allowed pleaders to use their own language in the lower courts. He also removed some of the worst abuses whereby German majorities were secured at elections. The consequence was that in 1883 the Czechs obtained a majority in the Diet, though not the two-thirds

majority which would have enabled them to control it. But these concessions did not satisfy the Young Czechs, who were disgusted at this policy of compromise and at the alliance with the nobles and the clericals which alone had enabled them to obtain these concessions. By 1887 Bohemian opinion was denouncing the Triple Alliance and becoming rapidly Francophil. Masaryk founded the Realist party, which helped the democratic Young Czechs to defeat the Old Czechs decisively and obtain control of the Diet in 1889.

*The Compromise of 1890.*—In 1890 the Government, alarmed at the democratic principles of the Young Czechs, endeavoured to checkmate them by reconciling the Germans and the Old Czechs. The Emperor himself intervened. The compromise, which was accepted by both parties, virtually proposed the division of Bohemia into two administrative and judicial spheres. The Young Czechs, who had not been consulted, would have nothing to do with the compromise. As federalists, they refused to hear of any division of the kingdom, and they were indignant that greater linguistic concessions had not been secured. Joined by a number of Old Czechs they obstructed the compromise in the Diet, and in 1891 swept the Old Czechs out of existence as a party in the Reichsrat, where they were joined by a strong body of Young Czechs from Moravia. Their radicalism and anti-clericalism still further alarmed the Government, which utterly failed to force the compromise upon the country. Strong measures were taken against the Young Czechs at home. A number of them were imprisoned on a flimsy charge of conspiracy; and in 1893 Prague was placed in a state of siege. The failure of Taaffe's policy of compromise resulted in his fall. It is unjust of the Czechs to regard his ministry as a period of stagnation. The crumbs that fell from Taaffe's table,

which even Rieger, the great advocate of moderation, at times resented having to pick up, at least gave them the control of education and other reforms which were necessary preliminaries to the political movement that brought about his fall. Before the war Germanization had ceased to be a danger, and the Czechs had acquired a kind of negative autonomy by the obstruction of public business.

*Badeni's Proposals.*—In 1897 the minister Badeni revived the attempt at conciliation by concessions which he knew to be the only possible basis of a settlement. His decree provided that, after a certain date, all officials in Bohemia must be acquainted with both languages. In 1898 he further proposed to divide the country into districts. Where the minority formed at least a quarter of the inhabitants, both languages were to be used; otherwise, only the language of the majority. As since 1867 the Bohemian German has refused on principle to let his children learn Czech, Badeni's ordinances would have favoured Czech even more than they appear to do at first sight. However, German opposition in the Reichsrat was so violent that Badeni resigned, and the decrees were repealed.

*National and International Socialism.*—Austria offered a unique field for testing the prospects of international socialistic and national feeling; and, at first, internationalism made considerable progress in Bohemia, as elsewhere. But early in the present century the great majority of Czech Socialists, disgusted at their treatment by their German brethren, adopted a nationalist programme. Spiritual values have triumphed over economic values; and, like the Hussites, they believe that deliverance from the German is a necessary preliminary to an improvement of their own condition. So strong is this feeling that a National Socialist will vote for a Czech

bourgeois candidate rather than for an International Socialist.

*The Körber Ministry. Universal Suffrage.*—In 1901 von Körber managed to quiet both Czechs and Germans for a time by bribing them with an elaborate scheme of canals and railways; but his efforts to bring about a permanent understanding by dividing Bohemia into German, Czech, and mixed districts failed as completely as those of his predecessors. The Czechs insisted that their language should be put on an absolute equality with German throughout the country; and to this the Germans would not consent. In 1907 universal suffrage superseded the old Austrian timocratic system in the elections to the Reichsrat. Every man over twenty-four received the vote. Though the Germans were unduly favoured in the redistribution of seats, the nationality basis upon which it was effected was a welcome reform.

*Failure of Last Attempts at a Settlement.*—The racial issue in Bohemia became acute in 1909, when unemployment combined with heavy deficits in the Bohemian Budgets to produce a grave economic situation. Measures providing for the free use of Czech and for the division of the country into twenty administrative and judicial districts (*kreisregierungen*), of which ten were to be Czech, six German, and four mixed, were submitted to the Diet. Feeling rose so high between the Czech and German parties that all the efforts at conciliation on the part of the Prime Minister, the party leaders, and the higher officials failed to produce a settlement. The language question involved the momentous decision which language was to be employed officially in the municipalities where there was a mixed population. In January 1911 Count Francis Thun took office as Governor at the Emperor's request, with the express object of resolving



this problem. Count (afterwards Prince) Thun had formerly been Prime Minister of Bohemia, but was not acceptable to the German part of the community, who credited him with Slav sympathies. Under his auspices conferences were held and commissions appointed to deal with the desired rise in salaries for Government teachers and with the financial position generally. Whilst the great landowners, who are Conservative in opinion, showed themselves well disposed to come to an understanding, the Radical parties in each camp proved unconciliatory. In spite of this, however, there seemed to be some prospect of a compromise being arranged, when unfortunately the Czechs made demands respecting the use of the Czech language in the city of Prague, which the Germans regarded as excessive. A postponement of negotiations for a settlement became inevitable, and this gave the opportunity for fresh disputes. The negotiations ultimately broke down. The school teachers' salaries question and the more important financial question had become more than ever acute by the beginning of 1913. All attempts to induce the Czech and German groups to co-operate failed; and ultimately, on July 26, the Government appointed an Imperial Administrative Commission and dissolved the Diet. The Commission contained three Germans and five Czechs; and this fact, combined with the selection of Count Adalbert Schönborn as President, produced intense indignation in German Bohemia, which was not modified by the knowledge that Prince Thun thought of suppressing political agitation by the use of the police. The Germans, therefore, adopted an attitude of uncompromising hostility towards the Viceroy. They thought the Commission as ill-constituted as the Czechs thought it unconstitutional; and by the close of 1913 the political situation in Bohemia appeared more confused than ever.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) RELIGIOUS

THE religious question has long ceased to be of political importance either in Bohemia or Moravia, except in so far as the Pan-Germans, under the guidance of Schönerer, have associated themselves with the 'Los von Rom' movement<sup>1</sup> on the ground that the Catholic Church is destructive of German sentiment. The Pan-German attitude tends to throw the Czechs and the Clericals into alliance, though the Church has not shown much sympathy with the revival of the Czech language. Nominally 96 per cent. of the inhabitants are Catholics, but there is said to be more free thought and religious indifference among the Bohemians than among any other emigrants to America.

About 23 in every 1,000 Bohemians are Protestants, Lutherans and Calvinists being fairly equal in numbers. The Lutherans are almost entirely German, and are therefore hated by the Czechs. Only in Asch, a district in the extreme north-west, are the Protestants in a

<sup>1</sup> This movement, political rather than religious, was organized by the Pan-Germans and Liberal Germans of Austria as a protest against Badeni's ordinances placing the Czech and German languages on an equal footing in Bohemia. Its object, as avowed by at least the more extreme of its political supporters, was to facilitate the incorporation of Austria in the German Empire by removing the objections of Germany to an increase of the Catholic element within her borders. Ineffective politically, the movement was to some extent exploited by the Protestant 'Evangelischer Bund', to which it owes such success as it has attained; but the total number of conversions to Protestantism and Old Catholicism in a period of ten years is reckoned at less than 70,000.

majority. The Calvinists are altogether Czech. There was an increase in the conversions from Catholicism at the time of the 'Los von Rom' movement, but these have since declined. The balance of conversions is, however, still in favour of the Protestants. The Protestant services are usually conducted in the language of the inhabitants of the different centres.

There are about 14 professing Jews in every 1,000 inhabitants of Bohemia.

## (2) POLITICAL

*Constitution.*—The Emperor is represented both in Bohemia and Moravia by viceroys. The Bohemian Diet consists of the Archbishop of Prague, the three Catholic bishops, the rectors of the two Universities, and 242 members representing respectively the great landowners, the towns, the Boards of Commerce, and the rural communes. The Moravian Diet, with 151 members, including the Archbishop of Olmütz and the Bishop of Brünn, has an additional class representing males over 24. Proportional representation has been introduced for the classes of the landowners and the Chambers of Commerce. The constituencies for the other classes are divided according to nationalities.

The Diets can deal with all matters not expressly reserved for the Reichsrat, but their powers are largely local. They have, however, almost complete control of education. All acts of the Diets must be confirmed by the sovereign, who can always suspend them. The Bohemian Diet at least may make suggestions on matters reserved for the Reichsrat.

Bohemia now sends 130 deputies to Vienna, or one for every 52,074 inhabitants; Moravia 49, or one for every 53,516 inhabitants. A Moravian elector is fined if he fails to vote.

*State of Parties.*—To the Reichsrat of 1907 Bohemia

sent 28 Agrarians and 17 Young Czechs ; but, except that they represent a class, the Agrarians differ little from the Young Czechs. The National Socialists, who numbered 9, are in favour of a system of territorial autonomy on nationalist lines. The racial struggle would thus be relegated to the mixed districts, and a settlement might gradually be reached. The Clericals held 17 seats, the Realists only one. Yet the Realist party, founded by Dr. Masaryk, carries great moral and intellectual weight in the country. It aims at dealing with the national question on practical lines, having due regard to existing circumstances, and bases Bohemia's claim to independence on natural rather than on historical rights. It is in favour of a federal reorganization of Austria, and complete independence of the various nationalities, so far as feasible, even in the mixed districts, with elaborate safeguards for protecting minorities.

But these party divisions mean little more than a difference of tactics. All parties are united in their determination to secure national independence either by federation or by establishing a separate kingdom, which is to include Moravia and also the Slovaks of Hungary. It is worth remembering that the right of each nation to determine its own government was one of the heresies for which Hus was condemned.

The aristocracy has lost virtually all political power. Bohemia is a progressive democracy, where the working man has already wrested supremacy from the middle class. Wages, however, are still exceedingly low ; and the condition of the workers, especially in the towns, leaves much to be desired. Once the national question is solved, the relations between capital and labour are bound to become acute.

*Recent Developments.*—The main question, that of the erection of a completely independent State, has



been decided by the march of events. The national Council of the Czecho-Slovak State has formed itself into a Government, and received the recognition of America and of the Allied Governments. 'Slovakia' is to be reunited to Bohemia, and the new State is to be a republic. This is the outcome of a steady consolidation of the Czech political parties which has been in progress during the war. It found public expression on May 30, 1917, in the Czech deputies' declaration in the Reichsrat of their intention to work for the union of all Czechs and Slovaks in a single democratic State, and was finally reaffirmed in the Declaration of Independence of January 1918.

### (3) EDUCATIONAL

The Bohemians, both Czech and German, are exceedingly well educated. The race rivalry, which has given Prague two universities, two commercial schools, and two technical colleges, has reacted favourably upon the whole educational system. They are by far the best educated people in the Austrian Empire. American census returns give the Czechs only 3 per cent. illiterates, as compared with 5·8 from Germany, while the Austrian statistics show a percentage of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 4 among the Czechs, 7 among the Austrians, and 56 among the Magyars. Both nationalities make it a point of honour to see that their children are well provided with schools. The excellence of the technical education in Bohemia is well known. The Government goes on the system that every town which possesses a special trade shall have its own school of industry and museum, instead of being obliged to send its sons away from home to study at a great centre. Apprentices are legally bound to attend the school and their masters to send them. Poor students are helped with

scholarships. In a small pottery centre like Ričan (population 2,114) there is a pottery school, attended by fifty-six students for six days a week; and a trade museum. Annual excursions are made to Pilsen and Budweis to see other pottery work. Prague is admirably equipped for technical training, as is Reichenberg, the German capital and the centre of the textile trade. But while the German technical schools are State supported, the Czechs are obliged to maintain most of their own themselves.

The schools form the great battle-ground of the races, since the language question is at the root of the quarrel. The German *Schulverein* was first in the field, and has all the wealth of the Germans behind it. In 1880 the Czechs founded the *Matice Školská* (Mother of Schools), which provides schools as soon as there are enough Czech children to need them. It also forces the Government to take over its schools when the number of children entitles them to be supported by the State. In the German area of north Bohemia there are now 108 schools educating 10,000 Czech children. Down to 1912 the *Matice* had spent some £600,000 on schools in the mixed districts. Much of the money is raised by the sale of postcards, stamps, &c., or by *heller* collections.

The *Matice* is said to have founded 56 primary schools in Bohemia and 14 in Moravia, in addition to 61 crèches. In the year 1912-13 these schools were giving instruction to some 15,000 children. In the Czech quarter of Vienna an educational society, the 'Union Komensky', is making a great effort to maintain Czech classes and private schools, and this is the more important because in Austria proper, even in the districts where there are large Czech minorities, all the public schools are German.

Both German and Bohemian employers are said to bring pressure to bear on their workpeople to induce them

to send their children to the schools of the employer's nationality. But the pressure is much stronger among the Germans, who are encouraged by the Government, which is alleged to make higher financial grants to the German than to the Czech schools. In the mixed schools the Czech pupils are at a great disadvantage. They cannot understand the German language in which they are taught; and as they are in many cases children of the poor employees of German masters, their interests are sacrificed. The Germans have hitherto dominated industry. Twice as many Germans attend the higher trade schools as Czechs—1 in 5,000 as compared with 1 in 10,000. The Czech peasant who wishes his son to rise in the world generally sends him to the university. The Czech University at Prague has twice as many students as the German, and is so overcrowded that a second university at Brünn, the Moravian capital, has become a crying necessity. Hence there is a surplus of educated Czechs in the country. Almost all the priests and the majority of the civil servants are Czech, while many find posts in Russia and Bulgaria. Educated Czechs almost invariably speak German, whereas educated Germans refuse to learn Czech. Consequently all posts where both tongues are required are held by Czechs.

The fight, however, is still an uphill one. Though, according to statistics compiled at the end of 1914, there were in that year 3,359 Czech elementary schools in Bohemia as against 2,334 German schools of the same class, this meant a comparatively small proportion of Czech schools in relation to population, for while the Czechs form about 63 per cent. of the population of Bohemia, they have only about 59 per cent. of the schools. Their schools also have a larger average of pupils, with the result that a percentage of about 59 of the total number of elementary schools has to

meet the educational needs of 62 per cent. of the total number of pupils, while the German percentage of schools, about 41, is responsible for only 38 per cent. of the pupils.

In Moravia, on the contrary, in 1911, the percentage of Czech elementary schools was about 71 per cent. and there were 1,896 Czech elementary schools to 741 German schools.

It may also be noted that in 1911 there were five elementary schools in Moravia in which instruction was given in both Czech and German, and in the same year Czech was returned as the sole language of instruction in 375 out of 612 municipal schools (*Bürgerschulen*) in Bohemia, and in 137 out of 230 similar schools in Moravia.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

### THE RACIAL STRUGGLE

Bismarck declared that the master of Bohemia would be the master of Europe. Here the age-long struggle between Teuton and Slav first broke out, and here, as many Germans assure us, it will be decided. In the Czechs the Germans have met their match. Physically, the two races are said to be almost indistinguishable in Bohemia. The Czechs are, in fact, admirably fitted to form the vanguard of their race. Like the Poles, they have an essentially western outlook. Circumstances and geographical position have weaned them from the mystical, oriental tendencies of Russia.

*Prospects in the Struggle.*—The rivalry between the two races has reacted as favourably upon the Bohemian Germans as upon the Czechs. The German cause, however, seems doomed in Bohemia. Owing to a greater



increase of population and a lower standard of living among the Czechs, the Germans, always in a minority, are losing ground more and more rapidly. They have been on the defensive from the first. The attitude of the Jews clearly indicates in which direction the tide is setting. As they share with the Germans the control of almost all the great capitalist and industrial undertakings, they have long been in the closest alliance with them. Now, however, they are said to be rapidly becoming Czechized, even to their names. German has been the mother tongue of the Austrian Jew from time immemorial, yet at the last census more than half the Jews in Bohemia entered themselves as speaking Czech.

*Phases of the Struggle.*—The modern phase of the struggle dates only from about 1848. In 1854 Viollet-Duc spent several days in Prague, which is now overwhelmingly Czech, without realizing that he was not in a German town. Czech did not altogether lose its artificiality as a language and become a thoroughly satisfactory medium for all purposes till towards 1860. There was little noteworthy change before the industrial revolution of the last half of the nineteenth century. But, when it was found impossible to procure enough German hands in the manufacturing districts of the north, the Czech invasion of the German regions began. The Czech portions of Bohemia are largely agricultural; or, if industrial, the wages and standards of living are comparatively low. Hence the Czech readily migrates to the German districts, where his appearance has often been the prelude to the gradual elimination of his German rival, whose standard of living is higher, and whose racial hatred is thus reinforced by economic causes. The German element, which forms the overwhelming majority in the middle classes, tends to remain stationary. The Czech labourer is soon fol-

lowed by his school and by Czech members of the professional classes. Then, when he feels himself to be strong enough, he sets about the political conquest of the town. Thus in Budweis, which was German for three centuries, there are now 28,000 Czechs to 17,000 Germans.

The intensity of the struggle can hardly be exaggerated. Every village in the mixed districts is contested. A supply of orphans has been sent from Prague to prevent a newly-opened elementary school from being obliged to close from lack of the required number of pupils. The changing of the street names from German to Czech, as in the case of Prague itself, is among the first signs of a Czech victory.

*The Sokols.*—The oldest Czech nationalist organization, and one of the most important, is that of the Sokols, imitated from the German *Turnvereine*. These societies for gymnastic training date from 1862. The members wear the feather of a falcon (*sokol*) in their caps. After 1866 they were frowned upon by the authorities, but by 1871 they had revived and were rapidly increasing. Gymnastic training is only one side of their activity. They are now organized on a great national system, which has spread across the Atlantic, and arranges lectures, founds libraries, and plays an active part in encouraging civic and ethical teaching. At their jubilee in Prague in 1912, 12,000 youths and 8,000 girls assembled, including contingents from America, to take part in the gymnastic displays. The Sokols have been entirely suppressed during the war.

*Czechs and Germans in the Industrial Field.*—The only superiority of the German over the Czech has hitherto lain in his wealth; and this is likely to continue, as he occupies the rich districts of the north and north-west, of which Reichenberg is the capital. Generally speaking, the Czech is to be found in the fields, the

workshops, the factories, or domestic service. But the Czechs are rising, even in the industrial field. There is a steady progress upwards from the lower to the middle and the middle to the upper classes. The process has been especially noticeable since the decline of emigration to Austria, which dates from about 1900. Hitherto the Czechs have lacked capital; but the enterprise of their bankers is endeavouring to remedy this defect, and the Jews are daily becoming more ready to finance Czech enterprises. As the urban populations acquire money, they invest it in industrial concerns. Already a sixth of the great Bohemian textile industry is owned by Czechs. In the same way the prosperous peasant buys land. The banks and the national societies help and encourage him to do so in every way, especially in the German districts. In a few years a single Czech society in the Böhmerwald bought land worth £200,000; and now nearly 1,000,000 Czechs are settled on the land in the Austrian provinces. The Germans find that a line of Czech farms already extends from Freistadt, through Linz, St. Florian, and Styr, to the border of Styria. German resistance to the Czech was at one time more successful in Moravia and Silesia, where the Czechs were less well organized, while the towns are largely German. But the *Matice* is fully alive to the situation and puts up a stiff fight. In doubtful regions of Bohemia or Moravia Czechs will only sell their property to Czechs. Lists are even kept of marriageable Czech girls and their dowries, in order to ensure their not being captured by the enemy.

*Czechs in Austria.*—Lastly may be mentioned the systematic Czech invasion of Austria, which, however, tends to decline. In Vienna alone there are 300,000 Czechs, mostly porters, errand-boys, small clerks, and above all maid-servants. The Viennese hate them and refuse to allow them to open a Czech school, yet every shop-

keeper is bound to know the Czech-Viennese dialect which they have introduced, so numerous have they become. Many of them are settled on the land, notably in lower Austria. As for the Civil Service, there are 6,890 Czechs to 161 Germans in the railways alone; and in most of the lower branches the Czechs are in an overwhelming majority.



## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) Roads

OF the total mileage of roads in Austria 38·3 per cent. is in Bohemia and Moravia; and, while Austria has on the average only 40·4 km. of road to 100 square km., Bohemia and Moravia have 63·7 and 60·2 respectively. These roads are of three classes—imperial, provincial, and parish roads, of which the first two are metalled but the third may be little more than tracks. In 1911 the sum expended on imperial roads in Bohemia was 5,219,524 kn. or 1,215 kn. per km. of road, and in Moravia 1,148,393 kn. or 1,383 kn. per km. The Bohemian roads are not so good as those of France or Germany, but otherwise they call for no comment.

#### (b) Rivers and Canals

When it is remembered that, poor as they are in comparison with those of some other European countries, the natural waterways of Austria include the upper Elbe and a large part of the Danube, it is clear from the accompanying table that she has not developed her resources to the best advantage:

	<i>Sq. km. containing 1 km. waterway.</i>	<i>Artificial waterways. Km.</i>	<i>Natural waterways. Km.</i>	<i>Total. Km.</i>
Netherlands . . . .	7	3,561	919	4,480
Belgium . . . .	14	1,612	454	2,066
Germany . . . .	35	6,602	8,667	15,269
Austria . . . .	46	73	6,456	6,529

Of this limited water system, Bohemia and Moravia, the industrial core of Austria, possess but a small share, as the following table (for the year 1912) indicates:

	<i>Rivers fit for rafts only.</i>	<i>Rivers fit for boats.</i>	<i>Canals.</i>	<i>Total No. of km.</i>	<i>Per- centage of total for all Austria.</i>	<i>Km. of water- way to 100 sq. km.</i>	<i>Length fit for steamers.</i>	<i>State expenditure in 1912.</i>
	<i>Km.</i>	<i>Km.</i>	<i>Km.</i>				<i>Km.</i>	<i>Kronen.</i>
Bohemia	805.8	354.9	10	1,170.7	17.93	2.25	192.9	1,311,139
Moravia	200.1	33.1	—	233.2	3.57	1.05	—	15,444
All Austria	3,880	2,576	73	6,529	100	2.17	1,330.6	10,672,243

As 47.3 per cent. of the area of Austria-Hungary is over 400 km. from the sea, the importance of cheap freight by inland waterways is very great. A glance at the map will show how valuable it would be for Bohemia and Moravia, if the middle Elbe were fully canalized and if the rivers of the two provinces were connected by canal with the Danube, the Oder, and the Vistula. It is true that efforts have been made to create an outlet for Bohemia by improving the railway communication with Trieste, but, although in 1911 that town asked the Minister of Railways to arrange railway rates so as to promote export *via* Trieste, the Reichenberg merchants in the same year asked him to promote trade by the Elbe route to Hamburg. Indeed, in spite of the large sums that have been spent on the Trieste railways, the United States Consul in Bohemia warned American manufacturers in 1911 to send their goods to Bohemia *via* Hamburg rather than by Trieste, since the latter route takes three to four weeks longer, goods by slow freight by the northern route arriving more quickly than parcels post *via* Trieste.

In 1896 proposals were made by a firm of engineers in Prague for canalizing the Moldau from Prague to Melnik and the Elbe from Melnik to Schandau (the German customs boundary). This scheme was adopted, the Imperial Government agreeing to pay two-thirds of

the expenses and the province of Bohemia the remainder, but in 1902, before it was quite completed, new plans were put forward. In this year engineering firms in Prague worked out an elaborate scheme for connecting the rivers Moldau and Elbe with the Danube; it included a ship railway, on which barges fully laden were to be carried. Bohemia would then be traversed by a waterway reaching from the German Ocean to the Black Sea.

By the imperial decree of 1901 Herr von Körber, in his Waterways Act, had foreshadowed the construction of canals on a large scale, and in 1903 it was decided to carry out within 20 years a scheme under which there would be constructed: (1) a navigable canal from the Danube to the Oder, (2) one from the Moldau to the Danube, (3) one from the Danube-Oder canal to the middle Elbe, and (4) one from the Danube-Oder canal to the Vistula. The estimated cost was as follows:

	<i>Kronen.</i>
Danube-Oder canal . . .	340,000,000
Rectification of the course of the Elbe . . . . .	220,000,000
Canalizing the middle Elbe . .	20,000,000
Connexion with the Vistula . .	120,000,000
Branch canal to Brünn . . .	57,000,000

The scheme also included the improvement of navigation on the Moldau through Prague. A canal from Vienna to Trieste (presumably *via* the Danube and the Save) was also seriously considered. Owing to the retirement of Herr von Körber, however, the carrying out of these plans was deferred. So far only the canalization of the Moldau has been completed, and the Elbe-Vistula canal to Cracow begun.

In the first instance these canals were proposed in

the interests of Austria, but it is evident that they would be equally advantageous to German interests, in so far as these are concerned with 'Central Europe'. In March 1917 Herr Budency, the well-known Hamburg Conservancy official, strongly urged the claims of a 1,000 ton ship-canal from Pardubitz (Pardubice) on the Elbe to Prerau on the proposed Danube-Oder canal, and pointed out that this, as well as the Elbe-Danube connexion, would increase the trade of Hamburg.

In December 1917, at the conference at Budapest of the Central European Economic Societies of Germany, Austria, and Hungary, Dr. Russ advocated, largely in the interests of North Germany, what is practically the Körber scheme. He said :

' In Austria the Danube-Oder-Vistula canal is ripe for construction, as is the canalization of the Austrian middle Elbe, which has been begun.

' The canalization of the Elbe near Aussig, where the river has always been navigable, is nearing completion. For a canal connecting the middle Elbe with the Danube-Oder canal near Prerau only preliminary surveys have so far been made. To draw up a detailed plan of the Pardubitz section four years are required.

' As regards the canals to be built in order to link up the Austrian crown-lands of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, and lower Austria with the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula, the estimated cost of the 282 km. of the Danube project is 260,000,000 kn. ; of the 128 km. of the Oder-Vistula canal, 100,000,000 kn. ; of the 185 km. connexion between Prerau and Pardubitz, 170,000,000 kn. ; and of the canalization of the Austrian middle Elbe for a length of 180 km., 165,000,000 kn. If the Danube-Moldau canal is omitted from this estimate, it is because Bohemian interests prefer to it a connexion between Pardubitz on the middle Elbe, which is being canalized, and the Danube-Oder canal—



without, however, giving up the idea of a line *via* Budweis either by canal direct to Korneuburg or *via* Linz.'

On the Danube-Moldau question, Dr. Russ was evidently speaking from the North German standpoint, for easy communication with the Danube is much needed. Thus, it was always customary for rod-iron from Bohemia and Moravia intended for Galatz to be sent, not down the Danube, but either by rail under the Levant tariff, or to Hamburg by way of the Elbe navigation, whence it was shipped to Galatz *via* Gibraltar at a very great saving of freight.<sup>1</sup>

It is probable that, with the exception of the proposed Moldau-Danube canal, the whole network of projected waterways would tend to direct more and more goods from Moravia, and also from the districts on the Oder and Vistula, into the Elbe route to Hamburg.

Certainly the Elbe is the cheapest and best route to the sea from Bohemia for certain classes of goods, and the tonnage carried is very considerable. In 1912, 2,275,417 tons of goods were carried down-stream to the Bohemian-Saxon frontier. Of these 1,689,000 tons were lignite, 262,150 tons sugar, 95,000 tons mineral oil, and there were considerable quantities of barley, stone and stoneware, soft goods, glass, and fresh and preserved fruits. There were also floated down the river 1,558 rafts of timber.

The passenger traffic is also large. In 1914, 156,958 passengers reached Aussig by river, and 148,970 left.

On the Moldau also, between Stechowitz and Melnik, a distance of 84 km., the tonnage carried is considerable. In 1911, 115,000 tons were carried up-stream and 796,000 tons down-stream.

<sup>1</sup> *Berliner Tageblatt*, April 2, 1917.

*(c) Railways and Tramways*

In 1911, of the 22,642 km. of main and local railway lines in Austria, 8,848, or 39 per cent., were in Bohemia and Moravia, 29·8 per cent. being in Bohemia alone. Bohemia has indeed a denser network of railways than any other province of Austria, viz. 1 km. of line to 7·7 square kilometres, as compared with 1 km. to 13·25 in the whole of Austria, and 1 to 8·07 in lower Austria.<sup>1</sup>

Of the 696 km. of tramways in Austria 162, or 23·26 per cent., are in Bohemia, and 31, or 4·4 per cent., in Moravia. Lower Austria, including Vienna and its suburbs, has 253 km., or 36·38 per cent. of the total.

The subjoined table illustrates the growth of the Austrian railways in the 35 years preceding 1910 :

	<i>Length of Lines (in km.).</i>	<i>State Railways (in km.) with percentage of total length.</i>	<i>Passengers carried.</i>	<i>Goods carried (tons).</i>
1876.	10,775	562 or 5·2 per cent.	32,560,000	38,470,000
1910.	22,750	19,120 or 85 per cent.	254,620,000	137,600,000

It will be seen that, while the increase in the length of Austrian railways (not including tramways) is more than 100 per cent., the increase of State ownership is 80 per cent. For a fuller understanding of these figures and of the difficulties and defects of the Austrian railway system, as it affects Bohemia and Moravia, a brief sketch of the development of the Austrian railways is necessary.

Up to 1873 the Austrian Government encouraged the investment of private capital in railways ; but the shortness of money owing to the financial crisis of that year brought private railway construction almost to a standstill. Consequently, the Govern-

<sup>1</sup> The figures given for 1912 are: All Austria, 22,879 km.; Bohemia, 6,769 km.; Moravia, 2,119 km.

ment guarantees had to be raised, and the State found it necessary to begin to acquire the railways and to construct new lines itself. But while State aid and the direct construction of railways by the State improved matters in the industrial districts in the north and west of Bohemia, which are largely German, and where railways were a remunerative investment (the Aussig-Teplitz Railway paid 12 per cent. as early as 1870-2), this did not hold good of the central and southern portions of the country and of the agricultural districts, which are mainly Czech. New railways, although of the greatest benefit to these districts, could not themselves be remunerative, and, in spite of further concessions and remissions of taxes by the State, only 444 km. of additional lines were constructed between 1880 and 1890. Evidently an additional stimulus was needed, and in 1892 the Bohemian Chamber provided substantial assistance by guaranteeing interest and the redemption of all debt involved in construction up to 70 per cent. of the cost. The result of this policy was very marked. Between 1892 and 1906 1,967·4 km. of new lines were laid in Bohemia, of which 1,208·8 km. were in Czech districts, and 758·6 in German districts. Thus, after the new constructions, the Czech portion of the country was better supplied with railways than the rest, having 1 km. of track to 7·8 square kilometres, as compared with 1 km. to 8·1 square kilometres in the German portion.

Apart from the electric tramway systems of the larger towns and their suburbs, Austrian railways are of three kinds :

- (1) Those worked by companies for private profit ;
- (2) Private railways worked by the State ;
- (3) Railways belonging to and worked by the State.

(1) Only two considerable railway systems are still in private hands :

(a) The Aussig-Teplitz Railway. (Offices at Teplitz. Share capital, 38,095,000 kn.) This serves the Aussig, Teplitz, Komotau, and Reichenberg districts, and has a length of 331 km. Its financial status is peculiar : there are no guarantees either for payment of interest or redemption of capital, but there are certain concessions, e. g. some portions of the line are free from taxation for periods varying from 20 to 25 years. The State has the right to purchase under certain conditions. Concessions on the different portions of the line hold good till 1950, 1964, and 1986. In 1889 a second harbour was built on the Elbe at Aussig, and for the period of the concession the railway company receives the dues of this harbour, which, at the close of the period, revert to the State without compensation. In 1912 the ordinary shares paid  $11\frac{1}{8}$  per cent.

(b) The Buschtehrad Railway. (Offices at Prague. Share capital, 57,280,000 kn.)

This line serves Prague, Kralup, Rakonitz, Komotau, and Eger, and has a length of 479 km. Concessions have been made by the State on various portions of the line up to 1963 and 1972. After 1940 the State has the right of purchase under certain conditions. In 1912 the A shares paid  $10\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. and the B shares  $11\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

(2) Of the railways worked by the State for private companies, which receive dividends, there were in 1913 5,889 km. in Austria. The exact figures for Bohemia and Moravia are not procurable.

(3) Of the State railways there were in Austria in 1913 12,990 km. Again the precise figures for Bohemia and Moravia are not available.

The State railways are under the Imperial Railway



Department in Vienna, of which there are branches at Pilsen, Prague, and Olmütz. The staff of these offices is Czech, except in the case of the North-West Bohemia Railway (a Statè line) at Prague, of which the staff is chiefly German. The names of the various lines remain in common use as they were before the State took them over.

The Austrian, and in particular the Bohemian, railway system has been the subject of much complaint. It grew up by degrees without design as a whole, as individual companies undertook the development of the natural resources of the country. This was unfortunate, because the problem of railway extension was a threefold one, viz. : (1) to serve the iron, coal, and textile industries in north-west and north Bohemia and in Moravia, as is done by the Aussig-Teplitz and Buschtehrad lines ; (2) to connect the Bohemian and Moravian lines with the through European lines ; and (3) to do this without leaving a large part of Bohemia and Moravia remote from the main lines.

The attempts to solve these problems have met with only partial success. The industrial railways of the north-west of Bohemia link up with Bavaria and Saxony more easily than with the rest of Austria. Only 32·2 per cent. of the railway lines of Austria have a double track, and in Bohemia and Moravia the proportion is certainly not greater. It is impossible to journey from Vienna to Dresden without travelling on a single track for a portion of the way (either from Lundenburg to Brünn, or from Iglau to Kolin, or from Gmünd to Beneschau, or between Budweis and Píbram), and it is partly due to this preponderance of single tracks that the railways prove insufficient for industrial needs ; indeed, factories have at times to lessen their output because neither raw material nor finished goods can be carried in sufficient quantities.

Again, Prague itself is off the route of the through lines. The journey from Vienna to Dresden *via* Iglau, Deutsch-Brod, Nimburg, and Aussig, is 322 miles, while that through Prague is 366 miles.

A glance at the railway map of Austria shows that the outlying portions of Bohemia and Moravia have closer rail-communications with other countries and provinces than with the interior of the Czech provinces of which they form part. It is partly to counteract this centrifugal tendency, which is found in the whole of Austria, that the zone tariff system, by which the freight is lower as the distance increases, has been introduced.

#### (d) *Posts*

The number of letters sent per head of population is on the average considerably greater in Bohemia than in the other parts of Austria. In 1912 there were in Bohemia 2,084 post offices, and in Moravia 1,054, or in the two provinces together nearly one-third of the total number for the whole of Austria (9,656). This corresponds with the population in the same year, which was : Austria, 28,748,850 ; Bohemia, 6,787,842 ; Moravia, 2,636,634.

### (B) INDUSTRY

#### (1) LABOUR

##### (a) *Labour Conditions*

In Austria the conditions of agricultural labour are bad, and Bohemia and Moravia are no exceptions to the rule. In both these provinces the money wages for a grown man are about 60 heller ( $5\frac{1}{2}d.$ ) a day. This is worse than in lower Austria, where, nevertheless, labourers do not earn as much as 1 krone, but better than in Galicia and Bukovina, where they earn only

50 heller ( $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ ) a day. In Poland the average wage is about  $6d.$  a day; in the Ukraine rather more. In all cases there is some additional payment in kind, the value of which is difficult to estimate. In many instances the labourer receives board and lodging, though of poor quality.

In the lignite mines of Bohemia the yearly wages are higher than in the coal mines of Austrian Silesia, hewers receiving 141·22 kn. more and labourers 194 kn. more than similar workers in the coal mines. Judging from the membership of sick clubs, to the Austrian total of which in 1911 Bohemia supplied 28·7 per cent., Moravia 9·9, and Silesia 3·1, labourers in Moravia are rather less provident than those in Bohemia or in Silesia, which has little more than one-ninth of the population of Bohemia.

It is stated, on the other hand, that, though wages may be low in Bohemia, the country labourer is not worth more than his hire. As the education in the country is not so good as that in the towns, he is undoubtedly placed at a disadvantage in comparison with the town-bred labourer.

In Moravia hours are very long, varying from 13 in winter to 17 in summer at Iglau, and from 7 in winter to 13 in summer at Göding. In Galicia the hours are shorter. It is worth noting that in the Ukraine farm hands may have to work as many as 18 hours at certain seasons of the year.

In spite of a law passed in 1902 to enforce the building of sanitary dwellings, housing is still bad, and many of the agricultural labourers who live on the farms sleep in the stables with the beasts.

The Czech labourers in Bohemia and Moravia are hardworking and intelligent, and the Bohemian farmers are the best in Austria-Hungary. The German labourer does not hold his own with the Czech, but the majority

of the big businesses are still the property of Germans, whose industrial capacity is rated higher than that of any of their compatriots in other parts of Austria-Hungary. It is only of recent years that the Czech has begun to appear in the higher walks of business, but he is rapidly making his mark there.

(b) *Emigration*

As a result of the unsatisfactory conditions of labour, which are closely connected with the dearth of small holdings and the mismanagement of large estates, there is a considerable emigration from Austria of the very poor, who tramp over the frontier to the nearest labour markets in Germany, Russia, and Rumania. A large number also flock from the rural districts to the towns, and this is especially the case in Moravia and Silesia. Many again go overseas, though in decreasing numbers. In 1911, 90,134 emigrants from Austria (rather more than 50 per cent. of the number in 1907) sailed from various European ports, the greater part going to North America; and it is fair to assume that about 25 per cent. of these came from Bohemia and Moravia. Often these emigrants come home in a few years' time with their savings: as many as 1,135 Bohemians returned from the United States in 1911.

Most of the emigrants come from the least fertile agricultural districts round Pilsen, Budweis, Tabor, Pisek, and Kuttenberg. There are said to be some 80,000 Czechs in Russia, of whom some 40,000 to 50,000 are in Volhynia, and it is calculated that by 1900 some 157,000 Bohemians were in America.

Between 1900 and 1910 the total loss by emigration, or by migration to other provinces, among the Czechs in Bohemia was 5.1 per 1,000; among the Slavs in Moravia, 6.6 per 1,000; among the Germans in the two countries, 4.0 per 1,000.



## (2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The soil of Bohemia and Moravia is fertile and the rainfall (seldom less than 20 inches) is adequate ; there is more rain in summer than in winter. More than half the surface is under tillage and the forests are valuable. The superficial area of Bohemia and Moravia together is 24·7 per cent. of that of Austria, while that of Bohemia alone is 17 per cent., but the agricultural importance of the two provinces to the Empire is much larger than these figures might imply.

In practically all important crops Bohemia and Moravia together in 1913 supplied from 40 per cent. to 50 per cent. of the total production of Austria ; of barley they supplied 63 per cent., of poppy 83 per cent., of flax fibres 59 per cent., of sugar-beet (an especially valuable crop) 90·6 per cent. (see Appendix, Table I).

A comparison with the United Kingdom affords an additional index of value. The area of Bohemia and Moravia is roughly one quarter of that of these islands, yet for some typical crops the output of Bohemia and Moravia together represents the following percentage of that of the United Kingdom : wheat, 43 ; barley, 37·1 ; potatoes, 92. The area of cultivated fields in Bohemia in 1897 was 2,621,890 and in 1913 2,679,971 hectares ; <sup>1</sup> in Moravia, 1,216,644 in 1897 and 1,254,798 in 1913.

The fertility of Bohemia and Moravia, as shown by the average yield per hectare in practically all the staple products, is considerably greater than that of Austria as a whole. Bohemia is markedly more fertile

<sup>1</sup> One hectare = 2·47 acres. In 1909-13 the average annual totals of the five principal crops (wheat, rye, barley, oats, and potatoes) were : 1,877,301 hectares in Bohemia and 876,545 hectares in Moravia.

than Moravia, and its productivity as compared with Austria is marked in every crop.

In respect of live stock, the accompanying table shows that the position of these provinces, if not so pre-eminent, is yet very important. With the exception of horses and pigs, they produce far more than their share, and are responsible for 32·8 per cent. of the cows and oxen, 48 per cent. of the goats, and 59 per cent. of the geese in Austria. It may be noted, however, that there is in Bohemia such a demand for cultivable land that much pasture land has been ploughed up, and consequently, in the absence of free imports, the price of meat has risen considerably. Of game, the proportion of the total Austrian yield supplied by Bohemia and Moravia is very high, being 73 per cent. of the partridges and rabbits and 66 per cent. of black game. A great portion of this important article of food finds its way to Vienna. It is thus clear that Bohemia and Moravia are by far the most important parts of Austria in the production of food-stuffs, and that of the two provinces Bohemia is the more productive.

#### NUMBERS OF LIVE STOCK IN 1910

	<i>Horses.</i>	<i>Cows.</i>	<i>Oxen.</i>	<i>Goats.</i>	<i>Pigs.</i>	<i>Hens, Geese, and Ducks.</i>
Bohemia . . . . .	250,428	1,122,152	2,290,587	406,362	1,012,798	8,885,093
Per cent. of Austria . . . . .	13·2	22·8	25	32·3	15·7	27·4
Moravia . . . . .	140,970	450,562	801,178	208,181	633,538	3,731,292
Per cent. of Austria . . . . .	7·8	9·1	8·7	16·5	9·8	10·2
All Austria . . . . .	1,802,848	4,901,886	9,160,009	1,256,778	6,432,080	34,380,274

*Agriculture in Bohemia.*—For statistical purposes Bohemia is divided into the eleven regions named in the following table. As might be expected, the inner regions are more fertile than the regions on, or bordering on, the rim of mountainous country which surrounds Bohemia, and, as shown by the statistics of relative fertility, regions I, III, V, and VI give the highest yield per hectare of wheat, rye, barley, and

oats. Region I, the Bohemian Lowland, comprising as it does the riverine basins of the lower Moldau and the middle Elbe, easily heads the list, while the average fertility of the most productive portion of it, the Leitmeritz district, is for the four crops mentioned above 50.5 hectolitres per hectare, as contrasted with an average of 30 for the whole of Bohemia.

RELATIVE FERTILITY OF REGIONS: AVERAGE YIELD OF MARKETABLE PRODUCE IN HECTOLITRES PER HECTARE. (One hectolitre = 22 gallons = 2.75 bushels.)

1913.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Average.	Order of Relative Fertility.
I. Bohemian Lowland .	26.7	25.7	33.5	44.3	32.5	I
Leitmeritz District .	39.8	40.5	52.5	69.2	50.5	
II. Foot-hills of Sudetes .	27.9	21.1	27	41.1	29.2	V
III. Lower Egerland with the Mittelgebirge .	27.8	24.3	32	42.5	31.5	II
IV. Upper Egerland with Teplergebirge .	23	21.7	26.9	38.4	27.2	VII
V. Beraun Region .	26	24	31.1	42.4	30.8	IV
VI. Pilsen Region .	26.1	24.3	30.9	47.4	31.2	III
VII. Budweis Region .	21.6	22	26.3	37.9	28.2	VI
VIII. Bohemian-Moravian Plateau .	20.7	20.6	27.7	38.9	26.9	VIII
IX. Sudetes Mtn. Region .	19	19.5	25.6	34.4	24.6	X
X. Erzgebirge .	16.3	15.6	21.6	24.8	20.5	XI
XI. Bohemian Forest .	21	21.4	26.2	38.8	26.8	IX
Average for Bohemia .	25	21.4	30.4	39.2	30	

AVERAGE YIELD OF THE SAME CROPS IN QUINTALS (100 kg.)  
PER HECTARE <sup>1</sup>

	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Average.	Order of Relative Fertility.
1913 Average for Bohemia .	19.6	15	20.8	19.2	18.6	
1909-13 Average for Bohemia <sup>2</sup>	19.1	17.5	20.5	16.7	18.4	I
1909-13 Average for Moravia <sup>2</sup>	15.5	14.3	17.1	12.8	14.9	II
1909-13 Average for all Austria <sup>2</sup> . . . .	12.8	13	14.2	12.1	13	III

<sup>1</sup> In Bohemia the average weights of 1 hectolitre of marketable grain were: in 1909-13, wheat, 78.9 kg.; rye, 67.5 kg.; barley, 68.9 kg.; oats, 48.7 kg.; in 1913, wheat, 78.3 kg.; rye, 70 kg.; barley, 68.4 kg.; oats, 48.9 kg.

<sup>2</sup> Figures in Maps 35, 37, 39 and 41 of F. Lange's *Landwirtschaftlich-statistischer Atlas* (1917), Teil I.

It is noteworthy that the Bohemian Lowland produces the following percentage of valuable crops out of the total output for Bohemia: wheat, 36·6; barley, 36·1; chicory, 90·7; sugar-beet, 71·1; poppy, 34·3. It is also significant that, as the development of the sugar industry stands in close relation with the general industrial development of Bohemia, the bulk of the raw material is produced within easy reach of the coal fields and the industrial centres.

The areas devoted to the principal crops in 1913, and the proportions that they bear to the total surface of Bohemia, are given in the following table:

<i>Description of Crop.</i>	<i>Area (in hectares).</i>	<i>Percentage of total area harvested.</i>
Wheat . . . . .	227,697	8·5
Rye . . . . .	530,898	20·1
Barley . . . . .	318,513	12
Oats . . . . .	499,563	18·9
Peas . . . . .	14,424	·6
Potatoes . . . . .	300,371	11·3
Sugar-beet . . . . .	142,014	5·4
Fodder-beet . . . . .	32,664	1·2
Clover and lucerne . . . . .	395,321	14·9
Other green fodder . . . . .	68,982	2·6
Various minor crops . . . . .	118,652	4·5
Total . . . . .	2,649,099 <sup>1</sup>	100

The large proportion of the surface which is devoted to agriculture is illustrated by a comparison with Austria as a whole, and with other countries:

*Percentage of Total Surface under Plough Cultivation*

Bohemia . . . . .	51·00
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	38·00
Austria . . . . .	35·00
France . . . . .	44·00 <sup>2</sup>
German Empire . . . . .	47·00 <sup>2</sup>
United Kingdom . . . . .	23·00

<sup>1</sup> The total area cultivated, including vineyards and house gardens, was 2,679,971 hectares.

<sup>2</sup> In F. Lange's Atlas (i. 17) the figures for France are 50·5 per cent., and for Germany 48·5 per cent.



*Agriculture in Moravia.*—More than 56 per cent. of Moravia is cultivated,<sup>1</sup> and the variety of climate ensures a corresponding variety of products. In the south are found maize, vegetables (such as cucumbers), valuable fruit, and vines producing heavy wine. From the centre, especially from the Hanna region, come barley, wheat, and sugar-beet. In the north and in the more mountainous districts the principal products are rye, oats, flax, and potatoes. Mountains provide pasture for numerous cattle, but in the Carpathians there is summer pasture only above 4,600 ft. In the south the harvest is often as early as the end of June, while snow falls in the Carpathians in September.

Nearly 60 per cent. of the agricultural land is under cereals. Rye and barley come first (223,219 and 201,324 hectares respectively), but a good deal of oats and wheat is grown (196,989 and 105,212 hectares respectively). The barley of the Hanna Plain is of especially good quality. Maize, millet, and buck-wheat are also grown, but the maize is a small crop and comes to full maturity only in the warmer regions of the south. There is a wide area under potatoes. Sugar-beet is greatly on the increase and does well. The crops of flax and rape-seed are not large. Hops do well in places, notably round Olmütz.

Leguminous plants and poppies cover a considerable area. Fennel, anise, and other plants of the kind are grown. The vine is extensively cultivated in the south. Vegetables are produced in large quantities. Fruit of all kinds is also widely grown. Meadows take up nearly 7 per cent., pasture 5·4 per cent., of

<sup>1</sup> Total area, 2,222,216 ; cultivated area, 1,254,798 hectares.

Moravia. The following table shows the distribution of the crops in Moravia in 1913:<sup>1</sup>

<i>Principal Crops.</i>	<i>Area (in hectares).</i>	<i>Approximate Percentage of total area cultivated.</i>
Wheat . . . . .	105,212	8·5
Rye . . . . .	223,219	18·2
Barley . . . . .	201,324	17·3
Oats . . . . .	196,989	16·1
Potatoes . . . . .	149,302	12·2
Sugar-beet . . . . .	82,390	6·7
Fodder plants . . . . .	147,444	12·1
Other root crops . . . . .	29,362	2·3
Maize . . . . .	10,362	·8
Various minor crops . . . . .	71,039	5·8
Total area cultivated (omitting vine- yards and gardens) . . . . .	1,216,644	100

A word may be added about some crops of special interest in the two provinces.

*Hops* of first-rate quality are grown in Bohemia. Saaz, Rakonitz, Podersam, and Laun are the chief centres of production. These and the other hop districts of importance (see table below) are in the fertile lower Egerland and the Bohemian Lowland. The absolute figures for the yield between 1903 and 1913 show what a very uncertain crop hops can be; with an average yearly production of 9,204 metric tons, the yield varied from 3,787 tons in 1906 to 16,480 in 1912.

Out of 20,146 metric tons of hops produced by Austria in 1912, 16,480 were of Bohemian growth. These hops are so highly esteemed that attempts have been made to cultivate them elsewhere. In 1901 the Government of Victoria sent to Saaz for hop sets for introduction into the colony.

<sup>1</sup> The following comparative figures for 1913 are of interest: Austria (all): total area, 30,000,000 hectares; wheat harvest, 16,227,000 metric cwt.; Bohemia: total area, 5,194,000 hectares; wheat harvest, 4,836,000 metric cwt.; Moravia: total area, 2,222,000 hectares; wheat harvest, 1,883,000 metric cwt.

FIGURES FOR THE NINE CHIEF HOP-PRODUCING AREAS IN BOHEMIA IN 1913. (N.B.—There are sixteen such areas in all.)

	Hectares.	Percentage of whole hop area of Bohemia.	Production in quintals <sup>1</sup> per hect.	Total production in quintals.
Saaz. . . . .	2,955	19.22	2.03	5,999
Rakonitz . . . . .	2,077	13.50	4.83	10,032
Podersam . . . . .	2,062	13.41	2.99	6,165
Laun . . . . .	1,955	12.71	5.05	9,872
Jechnitz . . . . .	1,335	8.68	4.12	5,500
Auscha . . . . .	887	5.77	9.90	8,781
Postelberg . . . . .	810	5.27	2.98	2,414
Leitmeritz . . . . .	704	4.58	5.30	3,731
Raudnitz . . . . .	517	3.36	9.40	4,860
For whole of Bohemia . . . . .	15,378		4.11	63,230

*Fruit.*—The principal fruit-growing districts of Austria are Bohemia, Moravia, and Styria. The principal varieties grown are plums, cherries, apples, and pears. In Bohemia fruit is grown chiefly on trees scattered through and along the borders of fields where other crops are cultivated; orchards devoted entirely to fruit trees are rare. In 1913 the Bohemian production (exclusive of grapes) was 206,132 metric tons. In this production the Bohemian Lowland easily took the lead, yielding 94,689 metric tons, or 45.9 per cent. of the total. The apples and pears include the best-known English varieties.

In normal times the agricultural schools tried to make the growers plant the kinds of fruit that were marketable in Germany and London. Companies have been formed at Aussig for the drying and preserving of fruit, and care has been taken to adopt modern methods.

*Wine.*—The wine production of Bohemia and Moravia is unimportant and the productivity of the vineyards per hectare is much less than in Austria as a whole. The wines are light, pleasant table wines, and are consumed chiefly in the country; but the wines from

<sup>1</sup> 1 quintal = 100 kg. = 220.46 lb.

Melnik were to be had in London. It may be noted that the only vineyards of any importance are in the Bohemian Lowland in the neighbourhood of Prague. The productive area in Bohemia, which in 1897 had been 802 hectares, had fallen to 532 hectares in 1913.

The total areas of vineyards and house-gardens in the year 1913 were : in Bohemia 69,858, and in Moravia 38,154 hectares ; but these figures include olive, chestnut, mulberry, and other crops.

### (b) *Forestry*

Although Bohemia and Moravia are less wooded than most of the other provinces of Austria, 22 per cent. of the forests are in these two provinces, which produce 30 per cent. of the output of timber. They also supply 25 per cent. of the output of firewood—an important commodity, since 20,964 metric tons of wood were used as fuel by the Austrian railways in 1908. The forest areas stood in 1913 at the following figures : Austria (all), 9,768,000 hectares ; Bohemia, 1,538,000 hectares ; Moravia, 623,000 hectares.

The only timber industry that is characteristic and highly developed is that of bent-wood furniture. In 1907 the Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt formed a number of factories of these articles into a joint-stock company.

### (c) *Land Tenure*

Since freedom of land transfer was introduced in 1869, two tendencies have been at work in Austria. On the one hand, small holdings have been subdivided, and on the other, large estates have increased in size, so that the comfortable farmstead is disappearing, and is either being replaced by allotments or merged in the estate of the large capitalist landlord. The tendency is most marked in Bohemia, where in 1908 as few as



776 proprietors owned 35·6 per cent. of the area of the kingdom. These large owners represented only 0·1 per cent. of the proprietors, for the minute subdivision of small holdings is a marked feature of Bohemian land tenure. In Moravia and Silesia also the same features are to be found.

This subdivision is due chiefly to the inefficiency and indebtedness of the small proprietor, and not to the equal subdivision of estates among children. It is therefore not surprising to find that the large estates are better farmed ; for the large proprietors in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia can obtain the capital to make improvements in agricultural method, and it is in these provinces that the most intensive farming is found. Yet the disappearance of the small proprietor is viewed with alarm, and in 1903 an agricultural law was passed to stop the process and to hinder the transfer of agricultural properties of middle size. In Moravia, by 1911 small portions of land, amounting in the aggregate to 40,776 hectares, had been joined together to make larger holdings.

The whole system of land registration has recently been reorganized. The particulars of private property are now registered so that the limits of property and conditions of ownership are seen at a glance, and the transfer of land is thus made easier and cheaper.

### (3) MINERALS

*Coal and Lignite.*—Of the total coal production of Austria in 1911, 37·5 per cent. was bituminous coal and 62·5 per cent. was lignite. Bohemia and Moravia together supplied 43 per cent. of the coal and 83 per cent. of the lignite. Naturally, the coal is the more valuable article for manufacturing purposes, and of this Austria, not having enough for her own needs,

imported a considerable quantity from the United Kingdom and from Germany. The lignite, on the other hand, was not only sufficient for the home demands, but also formed a valuable article of export for the provinces of Bohemia and Moravia, which supplied such a large part of the Austrian output.

It is true that in comparison with the great coal-producing countries, such as Great Britain and Germany, the output of Bohemia and Moravia is small. In 1912 the two provinces produced only 2·4 per cent. of the coal output of Great Britain, and 3·7 per cent. of that of Germany. Yet, in relation to the needs of the home manufacturer, the output of lignite is considerable, and, compared with that of neighbouring countries such as Hungary, is of great importance. It is significant that in 1912 the two provinces produced five times as much coal and nine and a half times as much lignite as Hungary.

The great increase in the output of coal and lignite during the twenty years preceding 1911 affords a valuable index to the growth of prosperity during these years. In Bohemia and Moravia respectively the production of coal increased by 13·2 per cent. and 79 per cent., and in Bohemia that of lignite by 70 per cent. Further, the increase of 47 per cent. in the price of lignite throws light on the increased cost of living in Bohemia, and shows that, in spite of special tariffs, it has been impossible for German lignite to compete with Bohemian.

*Coal.*—In 1912 the production of coal in Bohemia and Moravia was 43 per cent. of the total Austrian output. The approximate totals for pit-coal in 1913 were: Austria, 16,460,000 metric tons; Bohemia, 4,400,000; Moravia, 2,300,000; Silesia, 7,600,000.

In Bohemia there are four coal districts: (1) Kladno; (2) Pilsen; (3) Schatzlar-Schwadowitz; (4) Budweis.

Only the first three are of importance, producing in 1907 61.4 per cent., 29 per cent., and 8.8 per cent. respectively of the Bohemian output.

(1) *Kladno* (near Prague) is the most important bituminous coal district of Bohemia. It measures 9 by  $4\frac{1}{2}$  km., and the best quality coal is found in the immediate neighbourhood of the town of Kladno. It is estimated that the quantity of coal in the Kladno basin is 104,000,000 tons,<sup>1</sup> which with a yearly output of 3,000,000 tons would last for about 35 years. (The actual quantity mined in 1907 was 2,986,891 tons.)

(2) *Pilsen*, including pits at *Radnitz* (*Radnic*), *Miröschau*, *Merklin*, and *Wranow*. In 1907, 1,408,154 tons were mined, chiefly from the main field at Pilsen.

(3) *Schatzlar-Schwadowitz*. This is a continuation of the Lower Silesian or Waldenburg basin. It is 40 by 35 km. in extent, but produces in all only 290,000 tons annually. Almost all of this is consumed in the neighbourhood.

The coal produced in Moravia is about 34 per cent. of the joint production of the two provinces. It is obtained at *Mährisch-Ostrau* and at *Rossitz*.

The *Mährisch-Ostrau* coal is of very high quality, but as the district forms part of the *Ostrau-Karwin* basin in Austrian Silesia, it is difficult to state the exact production in Moravia. A calculation based on the number of hands working in the Moravian and Silesian pits respectively places the output of the Moravian pits in this district at about 1,500,000 tons, or more than two-thirds of the whole output of Moravia.

*Anthracite*.—There are anthracite mines in *Brandau*. The output rose from 13,637 tons in 1900 to 38,457 tons in 1907. In the latter year, 99 per cent. of the output was exported.

*Coke*.—The whole Austrian output of coke, 2,057,900

<sup>1</sup> The reference throughout is to metric tons of 2,204.62 lb.

tons in 1911, is small compared with that of Germany, 21,000,000 tons in 1908. Of this, Moravia supplied 50·2 per cent. and Bohemia only 1·8 per cent.

*Lignite.*—The lignite in Bohemia is mainly produced in two districts: (1) Teplitz–Brüx–Komotau, and (2) Elbogen–Falkenau. Lignite is also found in the neighbourhood of Friedland and Reichenberg in north and of Budweis in south Bohemia, but in negligible quantities.

(1) *Teplitz–Brüx–Komotau.* The lignite district of north-west Bohemia is a narrow strip, 160 km. long, with its greatest breadth 25–30 km. between Komotau and Saaz. This is the largest, richest, and oldest lignite basin in Bohemia, and the most valuable portion of it is between Aussig and Komotau. In 1911 this district produced 17,090,500 tons.

(2) *Elbogen–Falkenau.* The output of this district was in 1911 only 3,694,000 tons. In 1907, 23 per cent. and 44 per cent. respectively were consumed near the pit mouths in these two basins. These large amounts are accounted for by the large number of factories, especially porcelain factories, in the neighbourhood of Elbogen and Falkenau. The prices ranged from 4·06 to 4·63 kn. per ton, and in 1911 65 per cent. of the production of these two basins was used in Bohemia and 35 per cent. was exported.

Lignite is found in south Moravia, in the Gaya–Göding–Lundenburg district; it is of very inferior quality, but the production has increased of late.

The following figures show the total lignite output in 1913 in metric tons: Austria (all), 27,378,300; Bohemia, 22,761,300; Moravia, 254,400. Bohemia's share was thus over 83 per cent. of the total for Austria.

*Iron.*—The iron ore production of Austria in 1911 was 2,927,000 tons, of which Bohemia and Moravia together produced 35 per cent. In comparison with



the 28,000,000 tons produced by Germany, this output is small. It is, indeed, insufficient to supply the amount of pig iron needed for home consumption.

Of the 1,757,800 tons of pig iron produced in the provinces of Austria in 1913, Bohemia accounted for 351,600 tons, and Moravia, although its output of iron ore is insignificant in comparison with that of Bohemia, for 520,900. The reason for the larger Moravian output is that the Moravian ironworks are nearer the coke supply, while the Bohemian works have to fetch their coal from Silesia at a heavy cost in freight. The Moravian works, however, have to import their iron ore from Sweden, Spain, and Hungary, to an even greater extent than the other ironworks of Austria, and this may account for the cost of production being 70 kn. per ton at Witkowitz, as against 66 kn. at Kladno.

In Bohemia the greatest production of iron ore is at Nučitz, and it is calculated that the deposits there will last for twenty years at the present rate of consumption. This ore is mined by the Prague Iron Industry Company, who take it to their steel and rolling works at Kladno.

The chief iron and steel companies in Bohemia and Moravia are :

The Prague Iron Industry Company (Vienna and Prague). Capital, 36,000,000 kn. Directorate chiefly German. Works at Kladno, Nučitz, and Teplitz. It has coke and coal in Silesia.

The Poldihütte Company at Kladno. Directorate chiefly German. Capital, 11,000,000 kn.

Libšič Ironworks Company, Prague. Chiefly German. Capital, 1,000,000 kn.

Zöptau and Stefanau Mining and Smelting Company (Moravia). Capital, 3,000,000 kn. German.

*Graphite.*—The graphite industry is an important one. In 1912 Austria produced graphite to the value

of 1,869,998 kn., and of this 59 per cent. came from Bohemia and Moravia. The mines are at Krumau (south of Budweis) in Bohemia and at Schwarzbach and Zöptau in Moravia.

*Copper.*—Most of the Austrian copper is produced at Salzburg, the Bohemian contribution being only 1·2 per cent. of the total. The Bohemian copper is extracted chiefly by the Copper Extraction Institute and Electrolytic Agency of the Witkowitz Ironworks.

*Tin.*—Of tin Bohemia in 1912 produced the whole of the Austrian output of 605 tons, a negligible quantity in comparison with the world's production of 116,000 tons, but a useful proportion of the 4,000 tons (chiefly supplied by Germany) which are used in Austria, largely in making tinware.

*Precious and Rare Metals.*—Of these Bohemia has a monopoly, producing all the Austrian gold, silver, wolfram, uranium, and radium.

*Gold.*—Gold is found in the districts of Prague and Kuttenberg, and also in the otherwise unimportant antimony mines in the Joachimsthal district. In 1910, the only gold mine working in Austria was at Roudny, near Prague. This produces, on the average, 30,000 tons of ore, valued at about 604,000 kn.

*Silver.*—Practically the whole output comes from the Imperial Silver Mines at Příbram. In 1912 they produced 21,793 tons of ore, valued at 4,076,705 kn.

*Wolfram.*—This metal is found at Schönfeld, southwest of Karlsbad. The output in 1912 was 65·9 metric tons, valued at 172,667 kn.

*Uranium.*—This is obtained from the pitchblende deposits at Joachimsthal, north of Karlsbad. In 1912 the output was 10·89 metric tons of ore, valued at 155,466 kn.

*Mineral Waters.*—Bohemia and Moravia have a large number of watering-places, the alkaline-saline waters of

Karlsbad and Marienbad and the iron waters of Marienbad being especially famous. As the subjoined figures show, Bohemia and Moravia between them account for more than a quarter of the Austrian 'cure' industry.

	No. of Watering- places.	No. of Visitors, 1912.
Bohemia . . . . .	37	154,967
Moravia . . . . .	11	8,934
All Austria . . . . .	188	579,150

In 1912 the number of visitors to the leading watering-places was as follows: Karlsbad, 68,269; Marienbad, 34,509; Franzensbad, 15,376; Teplitz-Schönau, 7,776; Luhatschowitz (near Brünn), 6,626.

As can be seen, Karlsbad easily takes the first place. In this town there are two hotel companies with capitals of 4,000,000 and 3,000,000 marks respectively, one of which paid a dividend of 15 per cent. in 1911.

*Kaolin, cement, &c.*, are dealt with below under the heading 'Manufacture'.

The following table illustrates the importance of the chief mineral products of Bohemia and Moravia in 1912:

Description of Mineral.	Value in kronen of the production of Austria.	Value in kronen of the production of Bohemia.	Value in kronen of the production of Moravia.	Percentage of the Austrian output (as estimated in kronen) produced in Bohemia and Moravia.
Coal . . . . .	162,600,453	45,991,563	24,207,536	43
Lignite . . . . .	141,045,962	103,189,999	944,899	73·8
Iron . . . . .	27,364,903	12,280,102	31,334	45
Gold . . . . .	603,840	603,840	—	100
Silver . . . . .	4,076,705	4,076,705	—	100
Quicksilver . . . . .	2,882,630	—	—	—
Copper . . . . .	1,668,525	19,800	—	1·2
Lead . . . . .	6,567,943	61,336	—	0·9
Uranium . . . . .	155,466	155,466	—	100
Zinc . . . . .	2,887,256	93,333	—	3·2
Tin . . . . .	110,309	110,309	—	100
Antimony . . . . .	23,500	1,000	—	4·2
Wolfram . . . . .	172,667	172,667	—	100
Sulphur . . . . .	213,040	33,458	—	15
Manganese . . . . .	157,191	—	—	—
Graphite . . . . .	1,869,998	527,553	587,078	59
Asphalt . . . . .	145,143	—	—	—

## (4) MANUFACTURES

In this section the industries for which the raw materials are provided by Bohemia and Moravia, viz. sugar, beer, spirits, paper, porcelain, glass, and cement, are placed first. After these are given the industries that depend largely on imported raw or semi-manufactured materials, viz. textiles, clothing, gloves, chemicals, and machines.

The cultivation of sugar-beet and the production of raw kaolin, though not manufactures, have been treated here in close connexion with the sugar and porcelain industries, for which they supply the raw materials.

The total number of factories in Austria in 1913 was 17,034; of these, 6,512 were in Bohemia and 1,729 in Moravia.

*Sugar*

In 1911 Bohemia and Moravia produced respectively 60 per cent. and 30 per cent. of the total Austrian output of sugar, and in 1912 52·3 per cent. and 33·2 per cent. In 1912, of the total number of hands employed in Austria on sugar-making, 55·5 per cent. were in Bohemia and 33·2 per cent. in Moravia. The absolute figures of international production show that in 1912 Moravia produced approximately the same amount of sugar as Hungary, while Bohemia and Moravia together produced 2·8 times as much as Hungary, or about the same amount as France and 33 per cent. of the output of Germany. These proportions vary considerably from year to year.

The deep ploughing on the large sugar estates is mostly done by cable ploughs with 5 to 8 shares apiece. It was suggested in 1911 that petrol-driven tractors



would be more serviceable, as they are light, and would not pack the ground as they pass over it.

The greatest care is taken to obtain the best stock of beet for planting. At establishments at Rostok and Uhohlicky the sugar-beet is cleaned and dried for export, and beet-seeds are tested. More than 30,000 bags of this seed are sold annually, about two-thirds of which are exported.<sup>1</sup> The laboratories at Uhohlicky are on a fine farm of 800 acres. At the Wohanka farms two varieties of beet are produced: (1) that which yields the greatest possible percentage of sugar per unit of weight, and (2) that which yields the largest percentage of sugar per hectare. In a two years' test Bohemia was found to produce per hectare 796.4 lb. more sugar than Germany, 1,302 lb. more than Belgium, 1,826 more than the remainder of Austria, 1,986 more than Holland, 2,776 more than France, and 6,173 more than Russia.

The by-products are of great value. Of the 149,500 tons of molasses produced in Austria in 1911, 106,500 were used in Austrian distilleries, while 23,700 tons were used as fodder in Bohemia and 11,000 in Moravia.

The shredded residue of the sugar-beets is returned from the sugar-mills to the farmers, who generally pack it in long trenches, cover it with earth, and later use it for feeding. But some of the refuse is used as manure.

The following table gives the number of sugar factories in Bohemia in 1913 and their distribution. It may be noted that the Prague district takes the lead, and that the other centres are all in the

<sup>1</sup> It may be noted that all Austria sent to Germany annually on the average in the years 1909-13 more than 11,000 quintals of sugar-beet seeds, but imported annually from Germany nearly nine times this amount.

northern half of Bohemia and all within some 70 km. of Prague.

<i>Financial District.</i>	<i>No. of Beet- sugar factories.</i>	<i>Metric tons of sugar produced (refined and raw) in terms of raw sugar.</i>
Časlau . . . .	16	95,300
Chrudim . . . .	11	63,400
Jičín . . . . .	25	190,700
Komotau . . . .	7	58,600
Königgrätz . . . .	9	46,200
Leitmeritz . . . .	3	22,600
Prague . . . . .	39	315,100
Total . . . . .	110	791,900

The actual amount of refined sugar produced in Bohemia in 1913 was 432,919 metric tons, and the average annual production of raw and refined sugar for the period 1903–12 (expressed as above in terms of raw sugar) was 566,420·5 metric tons.

The financial interests of the sugar industry are naturally very great. There are in Bohemia and Moravia 67 joint-stock companies for the production and refining of sugar, with a combined capital of 100,417,700 kn. Of these, seven large companies (whose interests and factories are not confined to Bohemia and Moravia), with a capital of 38,600,000 kn., have a German (i.e. German-Austrian) directorate and their head-quarters at Vienna; nine, with a capital of 14,600,000 kn., have a German or chiefly German directorate; the remaining 51, with a capital of 47,217,700 kn., are conducted by Czechs.

### *Beer and Spirits*

*Beer.*—Although Austria-Hungary produces only one-eleventh of the German and one-quarter of the British yearly output of beer, the quality of Austrian beer is so good, and such considerable quantities are exported even to Germany, that for Austria, and in particular for Bohemia, the industry is an important one.

In 1911 the Austrian output of beer was 22,729,000 hl. Of this Bohemia supplied 47·22 per cent. and Moravia 8·82 per cent. The total production of beer in 1913 was: in Austria 21,081,000 hectolitres (1 hl. = 22 gall.); in Bohemia 9,994,000 hl.; and in Moravia 1,559,000 hl. The total production of Pilsen in 1915 was 1,452,555 hl., and of Prague, 1,055,100 hl. 'Pilsener' beer is, however, a generic term; and the light beers for which Austria is famous are brewed in many other towns.

Of the four Austrian breweries with a yearly output of more than 500,000 hl., two are in Bohemia—the Bürgerliche Brauerei at Pilsen with a yearly output of 970,000 hl., and the brewery at Smichow (Prague) with one of 617,000 hl. In addition to these there are 19 large breweries in Bohemia and 11 in Moravia. The great majority, large and small, appear to have Czech directorates and staffs.

*Spirits.*—In Bohemia every large estate has a distillery upon it, and in 1910 there were 425 distilleries of some importance. In that year the Austrian production of spirits was 1,551,159 hl., of which Bohemia and Moravia supplied 35 per cent. Bohemia, with 377,077 hl., produced more spirit than any other province except Galicia, with 729,991 hl. In 1913 the figures for spirits were: Austria (all), 1,619,000 hl.; Bohemia, 465,000 hl.; and Moravia, 194,000 hl. The largest distilleries in Bohemia and Moravia use molasses, though potatoes are used in Bohemia in the Tabor and Deutsch-Brod districts, and in Moravia in the Iglau district. It is from potatoes that the large output of Galicia is produced.

### *Paper*

Notwithstanding Hertz's strictures (see below, p. 90), the production of paper in Austria-Hungary is con-

siderable, as shown by the following figures for the world output in 1910 :

	<i>Metric Tons.</i>
United States of America .	2,903,700
Germany . . . . .	1,350,700
United Kingdom . . . .	866,100
France . . . . .	604,900
Austria-Hungary . . . .	361,900

Of the Austro-Hungarian output of paper Bohemia and Moravia produced 29 per cent., of paper-board 42·2 per cent., and of pulp and cellulose 20 per cent., or 30 per cent. of all paper and paper material. Of the two provinces Bohemia has a far greater output than Moravia, the proportion being about eight to one.

Paper and pulp mills have been established in the vicinity of the forests in the more mountainous regions of Bohemia, but they are also distributed throughout the country. There are paper and wood-pulp factories at Arnau and Gutmuth in the Riesengebirge, at Brünn, Prague, Kienberg, and Ollerschau. The Neusiedl Joint Stock Company for paper manufacture has a large paper-mill at Pilsen, and the cellulose for its mill at Neusiedl, near Vienna, is supplied by the Austrian Association for Cellulose Manufacture from its factory at Rattimau near Mährisch-Ostrau.

### *Porcelain and Glass*

The porcelain and glass industries are among the most important of north and west Bohemia. In 1913 the capital of the large firms engaged in these industries and in the production and refining of kaolin was 28,150,000 kn. The directorate of these companies was almost entirely German.

*Kaolin.*—The porcelain industry owes its existence to the deposits of kaolin in the Zettlitz-Karlsbad



district and in the neighbourhood of Kaaden, Pomeisl, and Wildstein. This is considered one of the best china clays in the world.

In 1910 the Zettlitz-Karlsbad district alone produced 170,000 tons of raw kaolin. Of the refined resultant 43,000 tons were used by the china industry and 8,000 tons by the paper manufacturers. Thirty-eight thousand tons of raw kaolin were exported yearly to Germany, Russia, Italy, and the United States.

The market is largely controlled by the Zettlitz Kaolin Works Company, with a capital of 7,500,000 kn. The price of refined kaolin remains fairly constant at 64 kn. per ton. There is also a Kaolin Convention of the Podersam and Pomeisl firms engaged in the industry, and a Sales Bureau at Dresden controlled by the Middle Europe Kaolin Works.

*Porcelain.*—The manufacture of porcelain is located in the smaller towns and villages of west Bohemia, and especially in the Eger valley, between Elbogen and Teplitz. These factories are near deposits of kaolin and coal. Local bituminous coal is used for power, and the kilns are fired with lignite from Brůx. In the Karlsbad district there were, in 1910, 47 factories employing 1,500 hands.

*Glass.*—The position of Bohemia and Moravia in the glass production of the world may to some extent be judged from such a typical branch of the industry as the manufacture of bottles. The annual production of the world before the war was some 1,430,000,000. Of this total Germany produced 430,000,000, England 305,000,000, and Austria 160,000,000. The output of Austria was thus 11·2 per cent. of the whole; and, as Bohemia and Moravia together accounted for 79·7 per cent. of the Austrian glass production, these two provinces were probably responsible for about 9 per cent. of the bottles of the world.

The different branches of glass manufacture are to some extent confined to definite localities :

*Sheet Glass* is made at Teplitz, Prague, Bilin, and Neusattl. Its manufacture is controlled by a syndicate, which acts in combination with the Bohemian Union Bank.

*Mirror Glass* is made at Pilsen, Hartmanitz, and Josefsthäl.

*Bottles* are produced at Prague, Teplitz, Aussig, and Neusattl. The manufacture is regulated by a combine of nine large firms in Bohemia, lower Austria, Styria, and Hungary, the Bohemian firms being located in the above-mentioned towns. The combine produced the whole Austrian yearly output, valued at 24,000,000 kronen.

*Glass Beads, Buttons, and Imitation Jewellery* are made at and near Gablonz: in this town at least 1,976 hands are employed in the industry.

*Decorated and Coloured Glass* is produced in the Haida and Steinschönau district, where 130 small firms have combined to regulate output and prices.

The following table illustrates the large part played by Bohemia in the glass-making industry :

	No. of Factories in 1910.	No. of hands employed.
Austria . . . . .	933	40,489
Lower Austria . . . . .	66	3,264
Salzburg . . . . .	9	989
Bohemia . . . . .	800	28,273
Moravia . . . . .	26	5,371
Styria . . . . .	11	1,656
Trieste . . . . .	4	301
Galicia . . . . .	17	625

### Cement

In 1911 Bohemia's output of Portland cement, 230,000 tons, was larger than that of any other

individual province, and represented 17·3 per cent. of the 1,330,000 tons produced by Austria.

The most important works are in the neighbourhood of Prague, where some 800 hands are engaged in the industry. The export of this Portland cement is considerable, and is growing.

### *Textile Industries*

*Cotton.*—In 1902, 57 per cent. of the Austrian cotton spindles were in Bohemia, and, in 1913, 84 per cent. of the Austrian cotton mills were in Bohemia and Moravia. In 1913 the number of cotton spindles in Austria was one-eighth of those in the United Kingdom and nearly half of those in Germany. Bohemia and Moravia represent about 60 per cent. of the Austrian production ; but taking the consumption of raw cotton as a standard, the pre-war output (1911–12–13) of the two provinces was one-eighth of that of the United Kingdom, rather more than a quarter of that of Germany and half that of France. On the other hand, it was twice that of Belgium, five times that of Switzerland, and ten times that of Hungary.

In Bohemia cotton is manufactured in the north from Asch in the west to Königinhof in the east. The great centre of the industry is the Warnsdorf district, not far from Zittau and near the boundary of North Bohemia and Prussian Silesia. Of the 1,119 mills in Bohemia 62 are in Warnsdorf alone, eleven of which employ 3,250 hands. The largest works, however, are in Prague, where 11 out of the 45 mills employ 12,800 hands. Among the other large mills are one at Neustadt with 4,500 hands, one at Braunau with 2,800, and one at Böhmisches-Trübau with 2,400 hands. The three largest concerns are at Horitz, Turmitz, and Prague, with share capitals of 500,000 kn., 500,000 kn., and

3,000,000 kn. respectively, the last being the most highly capitalized cotton concern in Austria.

Of the 231 mills in Moravia 40 are at Zwittau, where five firms employ 1,900 hands, 33 are at Mährisch-Rothenu and 21 at Sternberg. Mährisch-Schönberg has two large mills with 3,100 hands.

*Woollens.*—In the woollen industry, in 1902, 58 per cent. of the Austrian looms were in Bohemia and Moravia, and in 1913 59 per cent. of the Austrian woollen mills were in these two provinces. The mills of Austria-Hungary use yearly only one quarter of the amount of wool consumed in Germany and one-sixth of that consumed in the United Kingdom, but their business is large relatively to those of Switzerland, Rumania, Greece, and Asia Minor. The mills of Bohemia and Moravia account for at least 50 per cent. of the Austro-Hungarian consumption.

Of the 676 woollen mills in Austria, 246 are in Bohemia and 154 in Moravia. The manufacture of woollen goods is carried on in the Reichenberg-Kratzau district on the Saxon frontier of Bohemia, but its chief seat is at Brünn in Moravia, where there are 59 mills, of which 14 employ 14,700 hands. In Bohemia, Reichenberg has 39 mills (4 with 520 hands each), Hunpoletz 14 (3 with 720 hands each), and Asch 12 (2 with 700 hands each). In Eger there are two factories each with 1,000 hands. Niemes, Böhmisch-Aicha, and Neudek have each one mill, employing 4,500, 4,500, and 2,000 hands respectively.

Some branches of the industry are located as follows :

Woollen yarn is spun at Husinetz ; flannel is made at Leipnik and Jungbunzlau ; fine cloth is made at Prossnitz ; and weaving and yarn spinning are carried on extensively at Brünn. Fezes, which have a large sale in the East, are made at Strakonitz, Husinetz, and Pisek.



Carpets are made in Reichenberg and the Eger district, and were exported largely to Great Britain, France, Germany, and Russia. A special industry is that of oriental prayer-carpet, which are made from chenille thread in the villages as a home industry. On account of their bright colouring and low price they are in great demand in Cairo, Alexandria, Smyrna, and other places in the Levant.

*Linen.*—The manufacture of Bohemian linens has reached a perfection which makes them world renowned. There are large weaving-mills, some employing as many as 1,000 hands, at Eipel, Hohenelbe, Mährisch-Schönberg, Starkenbach, and Zwittau.

Flax-spinning is also a flourishing industry and is largely dependent on the home production of flax. (In 1913 Bohemia and Moravia produced 59·6 per cent. of the flax fibre grown in Austria.) At Trautenau, 5,000 out of a population of 14,000 are engaged in flax-spinning; at Grottau there is a spinning-mill with 1,000 hands.

*Lace.*—Bohemian lace is in considerable request, and is made both by machine and by hand. Machine embroidery and lace is made by automatic shuttle machines in Graslitz, Neudek, Weipert, and Asch. Hand embroidery, including old-fashioned crochet embroidery, is made in the villages near these towns. Much machine-made lace is sent from the Erzgebirge factories to be finished by hand in the Bohemian Forest (on the borders of Bavaria), where cheaper labour is to be found. Before the war the number of hand lace-workers in the villages of the Bohemian Forest and other districts was estimated to be 30,000. Much lace was exported to the United States and elsewhere. It is frequently sold as Belgian, French, or Italian.

*Ready-made Clothing.*—It is computed that Prossnitz

in Moravia produces one-half of the output of ready-made clothes in Austria. It has 44 factories with at least 2,700 hands employed (one factory with 1,000 hands).

*Gloves.*—This industry has existed in Bohemia for many years; even in 1800 as many as 16,000 dozen pairs of gloves were produced in Prague. Latterly the manufacture has increased greatly. In 1908 the Bohemian glove-makers made 1,500,000 dozen pairs, valued at 30,000,000 kn.

Prague is the chief centre of the industry, supplying two-thirds of the total output of Bohemia. In 1900 there were in that city, engaged in the glove trade, 733 tanners, 2,500 sewers, and 572 dyers. The remainder of the Bohemian gloves are made in the Erzgebirge near Joachimsthal.

Glove-making in Bohemia (particularly in the Erzgebirge district) is largely a home industry, and the miserable wage paid to home workers in that country has facilitated competition with goods produced in Great Britain and the United States.

### *Chemical Industry*

In 1911 Austria imported chemicals to the extent of 226,662 tons net. It is not possible to give exact figures for the consumption or production of raw chemical material or of chemical manufactured products in Bohemia and Moravia, but it may be taken that at least half of the consumption of raw material and the production of manufactured chemicals should be assigned to these two provinces. For the raw materials themselves Bohemia and Moravia depend largely on other provinces or other countries.

Austria is fortunate in having at Kalusz in Galicia some deposits of *kainit*, a natural salt containing

23 per cent. of sulphate of potash (equal to  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of pure potash) and 30 per cent. of common salt. Though small, these deposits have a special value for Bohemia and Moravia. It must be remembered that it is for roots in particular that potash is desirable as a manure, and that both sugar-beet and fodder-beet are among the most valuable crops in these two provinces, which possess no deposits of their own of either kainit or salt. Of salt, Austria imported in 1910 210,095 tons, of which 96,276 tons came from Germany. Bohemia and Moravia are thus dependent on the other provinces of Austria or upon Germany for an article which they greatly need.

Particular chemical industries are located in Bohemia and Moravia as follows :

*Sulphuric Acid* and other chemicals at Aussig, where there is a large factory employing 6,000 hands.

*Artificial Manures* are made by firms at Kolin, Peček (near Poděbrad), Budweis, and Neu-Erlaa. These firms are controlled by Czechs.

*Matches* are made at Brünn and Budweis, and this industry also is controlled by Czechs.

*Potash* is treated on a large scale at Kolin.

The Austrian Union for Chemical Production has factories in Aussig, Kralup, Nestowitz, and Hruschau (Austrian Silesia). It is controlled by German-Austrians, but does business chiefly in Bohemia.

The Chemical Industry Company has factories in Bohemia at Klein Tessowitz, Vysocan, and Aussig.

### *Machinery*

The machine industry of Bohemia and Moravia is an important one. It supplies the greater part of the Austrian demand, and exports considerable quantities to other countries. The industry is established in many

of the leading towns, but more particularly in Prague and its suburbs and in the Brünn district. These two centres supply most of the railway, sugar, and textile plant used in Austria.

The manufacture of motor-cars has improved steadily, and good cars are made by firms at Prague, Reichenberg, and Jungbunzlau, the latter town supplying cars to Montenegro. Many factories in Bohemia and Moravia are making motors for industrial purposes.

While some of the larger works (including the Skoda Ordnance Works at Pilsen) are under German-Austrian control, machine-making is on the whole a Czech industry.

The following figures give the approximate number of hands employed in the machine and metal industry in various towns: Prague, 28,400; Pilsen, 13,000, of which 10,000 are in the Skoda Ordnance Works; Brünn, 6,500; Gablonz, 2,500; Budweis, 2,200; Mährisch-Ostrau, 2,050.

The various branches of the industry are distributed as follows:

*Locomotives and Railway Plant.* Prague, Aussig, Stauding (Mährisch-Ostrau), Pilsen, Kolin.

*Electrical Plant.* Prague.

*Sugar Machinery.* Prague, Brünn (and district), Blansko, Schlan, Aussig, Karolinenthal.

*Brewing Machinery.* Prague.

*Textile Machinery.* Brünn and district, Prague.

*Enamelled Iron and Iron-ware.* Prague, Brünn, Naschwitz, Budweis, Friedland (north of Reichenberg), Olmütz.

*High-class Shot Guns and Cartridges.* Prague.

*Sewing Machines.* Prague.

*Machines and Motors.* Prerau, Prossnitz, Jungbunzlau, Reichenberg, Blansko.



*Wire Nails and Screws.* Saaz.

*Ordinance.* Pilsen.

*Machinery for making Cheap Jewellery.* Gablonz.

### (5) TRADE COMBINATIONS AND CARTELS

In Austria the development of trade combinations has been very marked, though for various reasons, among which are the hostility of the courts to the movement and the heavy tax on corporations, which has tended to discourage the amalgamation of private firms, their number has always been much smaller than in Germany. The most successful as well as the earliest combine was the iron cartel, while up to the date of the Brussels Convention the sugar cartel was very powerful.

Individual industries are organized as follows :

*Wood Industry.*—In 1908 the wood-merchants and saw-mill owners of the Reichenberg district established a control bureau of their industry at the Reichenberg branch of the Oesterreichische Kredit-Anstalt.

*Iron Industry.*—The Austrian iron industry is regulated by a cartel. This originated in 1886, in a combine of the Teplitz Rolling Mills and Bessemer Furnaces, the Bohemian Mining Company, and the Witkowitz Mining and Iron Furnace Company. In 1901 the chief Austrian works, and, in particular, the Prague Iron Industry Company, the Bohemian Mining Company, the Witkowitz Mining Company, and the works of the Erzherzog Friedrich syndicated themselves on the basis of a new cartel. This has an executive committee (German-Austrian) in Vienna. Its total output of iron, railway material, rails, sheet-metal, &c., supplied in Austria, was, in 1911, 750,800,000 metric tons.

As the manufacture of iron is protected artificially

by an import duty, and naturally by the cost of land or river carriage to the interior, the trade is very profitable to the manufacturers. On the whole, however, Austria will remain a buyer of iron rather than a seller.

*Graphite Industry.*—In 1907, the Prague branch of the Credit Bank arranged a combine for the sale of Austrian graphite, and came to an understanding with the talc and graphite companies of Val Chisone in Pinerolo (Province of Turin) to protect their common interests. Two-thirds of the Austrian output is under the control of this trust.

*Sugar Industry.*—Since 1891 a series of cartels have controlled the price and the sale of sugar. In Austria a cartel of the sugar refineries was formed in 1891. This proved insufficient, and during the years 1898–1903 a cartel of the combined refiners and sugar producers was in existence, and thoroughly organized the conditions of production. In 1903 the new conditions imposed by the Brussels Convention brought the existing Austrian cartel to an end, and a new cartel came into being in 1906. Included in it were 22 refineries divided into three groups: (1) the Bohemian; (2) the Moravian, Silesian, and Lower Austrian; and (3) the Przeworsk (Galicia) factories.

Now that bounties are practically abolished and the operations of the cartels limited, the value of beet-sugar as a profit-winning product depends mainly on the cost of production. In this respect it has to compete not only with cane sugar, but with cereals as well. Thus, though it can hold its own with cane sugar, the area devoted to it in Bohemia has not increased owing to the good prices obtainable for cereals.

*Brewing and Distilling.*—An Imperial Defence Organization of the Austrian Brewing Industries was founded in 1910. There is also a Defence League of

the Bohemian Breweries (embracing 350 breweries) and a Union of Brünn Breweries. There is a Union of Agricultural Distilleries at Prague. This controls the sale of the agricultural distilleries in Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Lower Austria. It is financed by the Länderbank and the Zivnoštenska Banká. In 1911 a Spirit Cartel was organized by the Kredit-Anstalt in conjunction with the Zivnoštenska Bank to regulate the production of spirits in Austria (not including Galicia and the Bukovina). Its headquarters are at Prague.

*Cotton Industry.*—This industry is well organized and is controlled by the Combine of Austro-Hungarian Cotton Spinners, the Export and Sale Union of Austrian and Hungarian Cotton Spinners, the Union of Cotton Ribbon Makers of Austria-Hungary, represented in Bohemia by factories at Schönau, Nixdorf, and Hainspach, and the Union of the Makers of Warnsdorf Goods, a combine of cotton goods makers in Warnsdorf, Rumburg, Schönlinde, Böhmisches Kamnitz, Kreibitz, and Niedergrund.

*Woollen Industry.*—There is a Union of Woven Goods Manufacturers of Asch, Haslau, Fleissen, Schönlinde, and Iglau, financed by the Länderbank of Prague, and also a Combine of Moravian Knitted Goods and Stocking Makers which includes firms at Iglau, Deutsch-Brod, Asch, Pilgram, and Jägerndorf (Austrian Silesia).

*Glass, China, and Enamelled Ware Industries.*—There is a Cartel of Bohemian Sheet-Glass Manufacturers, controlled by the Union Bank of Bohemia. It was reorganized in 1911, when some firms in other provinces of Austria were admitted. There is also a Cartel of Looking-Glass Manufacturers, with headquarters at Pilsen; a Union of the North-Bohemian Glass Manufacturers of Haida and Steinschönau, with headquarters at Haida; a Union of the Austro-Hungarian

Bottle Manufacturers (to which the large firms in Aussig, Prague, Teplitz, and Neusattl belong), controlled by the Union Bank of Bohemia; a Convention of the Austrian Porcelain Manufacturers, with headquarters at Karlsbad, to which 28 of the largest firms belong; and a Household Crockery Cartel, which in 1908 entered into an agreement with the German China Manufacturers to regulate the export to the United States and Canada. There is also an Austrian Cartel of Enamelled Ware Makers, which includes the Bohemian makers and is affiliated to a large Union of European Enamelled Wares Works with an export bureau at Berlin.

*Chemical Industry.*—The two chief cartels for the regulation of chemical industry have their headquarters in Bohemia. The Cartel for Artificial Manure has offices at Prague and at Budapest; while the Sulphuric Acid Cartel has branches at Aussig, Hruschau, and Kolin, and is controlled by the Union Bank of Bohemia.

*Nitrate Combine.*—The large Austrian and Hungarian nitrate concerns, viz., the contemplated joint-stock company (to be financed by the Kredit-Gesellschaft) for exploiting the water-power of Dalmatia, the nitrate works established in Falkenau by the Aussig Chemical Association and the Buschtěhrad Railway, the Austrian works established in Styria by the Prague Iron Industry, the Escomptegesellschaft, the Deposit Bank, the Dynamit Nobel, and the Hungarian Nitrate Fertilizers Industry Company (closely connected with the Hungarian Natural Gas Company), were to be combined (1918) under the auspices of the Government in a 'sale and price' organization for the sale of artificial fertilizers.

*Machine Factories.*—The Union of the Austrian Machine Factories, with headquarters at Prague, includes the chief Bohemian and Moravian firms.



### (C) COMMERCE

#### *(a) Organizations for promoting Trade*

In Bohemia there are Chambers of Commerce at Prague, Pilsen, Budweis, Reichenberg, and Eger; in Moravia at Brünn and Olmütz.

#### *(b) Exports and Imports*

Only in the case of certain articles is it possible to give figures for the exports and imports from and to Bohemia and Moravia, for the official statistics deal with Austria or Austria-Hungary as a whole. The two provinces are, however, of such importance both as regards manufactures and raw materials, that it is worth while to notice the figures for some of those commodities for which no special figures of Bohemia and Moravia are available. Probably no provinces of the Dual Monarchy have been more affected, for instance, by such facts as the depression of the cotton industry (which up to 1912 had been fairly prosperous) <sup>1</sup> owing to the Balkan War and the extended credit demanded by Serbia, Bulgaria, and Rumania; or the loss by Austrian distillers since 1900 of their leading place in the world's markets owing to the prohibitive import duties applied by Spain and Japan, to the competition of Russia and Rumania for the Levantine trade, and to German competition in Austria itself.

In at least one particular Bohemia has suffered through the ease of exportation. It has been com-

<sup>1</sup> Bohemia and Moravia supply about half the textiles exported from Austria-Hungary. The net export of cotton goods in 1911 from Austria-Hungary was of the value of 108,835,000 kn., though cotton goods to the value of 10,605,000 kn. were imported from Germany, and to about a third of that amount from France and the United Kingdom together. The best customers of Austria-Hungary were Switzerland, European Turkey, and Rumania, whose purchases respectively cost 52,891,000, 15,742,000, and 14,281,000 kn.

plained<sup>1</sup> that the export of wood down the Elbe and Moldau and along the chief railways, where it is favoured by cheap rates, has been excessive, and that it was worked up by Germany and Italy, whereas Austria ought to use more of her raw and semi-raw material in her own paper factories. Indeed in 1913 Austria exported 22,000,000 kn. value of wood-pulp and cellulose, which were afterwards reimported into the country, largely from Saxony and in spite of heavy protective duties, in the form of paper and other manufactured goods.

The freightage on the Elbe is so cheap that Bohemian lignite can compete with German fuel at a considerable distance from the frontier. Thus in 1907, 2,026,196 tons, or 22·97 per cent. of the total lignite exports of Bohemia, were transported down the Elbe.

Again, of the total Austrian production of sugar in 1911, 229,629 tons were conveyed down the Elbe to the Bohemian frontier (see under *Sugar* below).

The other main channel for the exports of these two provinces, particularly those of Moravia, is the route by rail to Trieste. Whereas only a small portion of the Bohemian output of coal was exported *via* Trieste, for Moravia the rail route to Trieste came more naturally into competition with the water route to Hamburg. Thus, in 1911, Moravia exported 28 per cent. of its sugar production by Trieste, Bohemia only 11·8 per cent. When the canal scheme mentioned above (p. 46) makes it possible to use the Danube as an artery of their commerce, it may be safely anticipated that the trade of these two provinces with south-eastern Europe will be very greatly stimulated.

The figures given for the exports and imports of the following articles refer to Bohemia only, or to

<sup>1</sup> See Friedrich Hertz, *Die Produktionsgrundlagen der oesterreichischen Industrie vor und nach dem Kriege*. 1st Ed. Vienna, 1917.

Bohemia and Moravia jointly, except in the cases of porcelain and glass, of which nevertheless the export from provinces other than Bohemia and Moravia was very small, of sugar and beer, which similarly came almost entirely from these two provinces, and of graphite, of which 65 per cent. of the Austrian production came from Bohemia and Moravia.

*Hops and Fruit.*—Bohemian hops were in great demand for export to all the principal countries. Germany, in spite of a high import duty, was the chief customer, taking hops to the value of 13,941 kn. in 1911, the United States coming next with an import of 4,537 kn. in value.

The chief export of fruit was to Germany. Plums and other stone fruit were sent by rail and river to Berlin, Hamburg, Dresden, and other large towns. Dessert fruits, packed in baskets, were exported in large quantities to Russia (especially to Moscow and Petrograd), and also to Norway and Sweden; dried plums were sent to the United Kingdom. The centre of the export trade was Lobositz on the Elbe, in the district of greatest fertility. In 1912 (a remarkably good year) 26,374 metric tons of fresh and preserved fruits were sent down the Elbe to the Bohemian frontier for export.

*Coal and Lignite.*—The industries of Bohemia have not used the native lignite as much as they might have done, but have preferred to use coal, chiefly imported from upper and lower Silesia. From Prussian Silesia in 1913 Bohemia took 833,000 tons; Moravia also took large quantities, 338,081 tons going to Brünn, Olmütz, Prerau, and Mährisch-Ostrau. The north Bohemian lignite, in comparison with the German, is more compact, contains less water, and has a higher caloric value. It has, therefore, been largely exported to Germany. Latterly, however, there has been a

tendency to use more of it at home. In 1880, 3,163,640 tons, or 51 per cent. of the total production, were exported; in 1907 the figure was 8,820,897 tons, but this was only 40 per cent. of the total production, and by 1911 only some 35 per cent. of the output of the two main fields was being sent abroad. The decline in the export of lignite is largely due to the following reasons: (1) the depth of the workings in Bohemia is on the average much greater than in Germany, with the result that the Bohemian lignite is dearer to produce than, and therefore cannot compete with, the German; (2) new railway lines have been constructed, which make it easier to convey Bohemian lignite to central and northern Bohemia for home consumption; (3) the tariffs on the German railways are lower than in Bohemia.

The demand for coal, whether imported or not, is bound to be very large in these two provinces. It is to be noted that considerably more fuel is used in sugar factories than in blast furnaces; and while an increased demand for fuel in the sugar factories might be satisfied by an increased supply of home lignite, a similar demand by blast furnaces would have to be met by an increased import of coke. As it is, Bohemia has to import a considerable quantity of coke for her own use, both from Moravia and from Germany.

Of the small quantity of lignite briquettes produced in Bohemia, the greater part is exported to Germany; but it will be difficult for this to compete with German briquettes, since German lignite is easy to use in its raw condition and needs no binding material, whereas Bohemian lignite will not bind well unless some binding material is added, and this process substantially increases the expense of making briquettes.

*Iron.*—For use in Bohemian and Moravian iron-works large quantities of iron ore were imported from Sweden, Spain, and Hungary before the war.



*Graphite.*—The export went to Germany, Switzerland, England, Russia, France, Belgium, and America.

*Sugar.*—In 1911 Bohemia and Moravia produced 90 per cent. of the Austrian output of sugar,<sup>1</sup> and 63 per cent. of the total output from Austria-Hungary. In the year named Austria-Hungary exported 674,800 tons of sugar out of a total production of 1,523,000 tons. Her largest individual customers were the United Kingdom, Turkey (European and Asiatic), and Switzerland. The Balkan States, Egypt, and Italy also took considerable quantities.

*Beer.*—In 1910 there was an export from Austria-Hungary of 10,686,800 hectolitres or 17,298,690 barrels of beer. The chief countries importing from Austria-Hungary were :

	<i>Value in kronen.</i>
Belgium . . . .	297,000
Egypt . . . .	540,000
Germany . . . .	7,506,000
Italy . . . .	1,114,000
Netherlands . . . .	265,000
Switzerland . . . .	474,000
United States . . . .	1,744,000

It may be assumed that a very large proportion of this was 'Pilsener' beer from Bohemia and Moravia.

*Gloves.*—There was a large export of gloves from Bohemia, chiefly to Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. In 1900 gloves to the value of 23,013,500 kn. were exported from Bohemia to Germany and Great Britain, Germany taking more than half. In 1910 ladies' gloves to the value of 900,420 kn. were exported to the United States.

*China and Glass.*—In Austria the manufacture of china is almost entirely confined to Bohemia, and therefore the Austrian exports of porcelain given in the table below may be taken as statistics of the Bohemian trade. It will be seen from the table

<sup>1</sup> And in 1913 nearly 92 per cent.

that the export of decorated porcelain was much larger than that of white porcelain, and that the largest customer in 1910 was Great Britain, which imported 82 per cent. of the total taken by Germany and the United States together.

	<i>White Porcelain.</i>	<i>Decorated Porcelain.</i>
	Tons.	Tons.
Asiatic Turkey . . . . .	219	—
Australia . . . . .	—	582
Dutch Indies . . . . .	604	—
Germany . . . . .	772	2,355
Great Britain . . . . .	224	4,245
Italy . . . . .	278	—
Rumania . . . . .	273	633
United States . . . . .	174	2,134
Other countries . . . . .	988	2,416
Hamburg (for export) . . . . .	205	1,081
Total . . . . .	3,737	13,446

The Bohemian glass industry often suffers from depression, owing to severe competition with Germany and Belgium, in which countries manufacturers have the advantages of cheaper inland freights and raw materials, while taxes and other expenses are lower. Japan also is trying to oust the Gablonz manufacturers of glass jewellery from the Indian market. Yet in 1913 the sale of glass goods, as shown by the figures below, was not unsatisfactory. These goods were exported from Austria as follows :

	<i>Value in kronen.</i>
To Balkan States . . . . .	2,030,000
To British India . . . . .	8,627,500
To Germany . . . . .	6,090,000
To Turkey . . . . .	2,030,000
To United Kingdom . . . . .	8,112,000
To United States . . . . .	2,500,000
To Hamburg (for export) . . . . .	12,180,000
Total . . . . .	41,569,500

*Machinery.*—The United Kingdom supplied Bohemia with a considerable amount of textile machinery, while certain kinds of agricultural machinery were supplied in the past by the United States and Canada ; in 1911 practically all the harvesting machines came from the

United States. By 1913 the local manufacturers were imitating American mowing and reaping machines and making keen competition.

On the other hand, Canada gave orders to Bohemia for beet-sugar machinery; sugar-making plant was supplied to Italy and Rumania; dynamos were supplied from Prague to the United Kingdom (London, Middlesbrough, Newport, Dublin) and Tasmania; and trucks, tramcars, and locomotives were exported to Italy, Germany, Rumania, Serbia, and Turkey.

## (D) FINANCE

### (1) PUBLIC FINANCE

The Imperial Revenue and Expenditure for 1912 was as follows :—

<i>Revenue.</i>		<i>Expenditure.</i>	
	<i>Kronen.</i>		<i>Kronen.</i>
Total Ordinary Revenue .	3,006,085,000	Total Ordinary Expenditure	2,778,203,000
Extraordinary Revenue .	167,224,000	Extraordinary Expenditure	406,158,000
Total Revenue .	3 173,309,000	Total Expenditure	3,184,361,000

Of the total revenue, direct taxes amounted to 408,083,000 kn., and indirect taxes (customs, excise, &c.) to 1,435,561,000 kn.

While education, commerce, and national defence are markedly heavy items of expenditure, by far the heaviest is the railways. On these the expenditure rose from 266,370,000 kn. in 1906 to 649,810,000 kn. in 1912; while during the same years the expenditure on agriculture only rose from 50,654,000 kn. to 51,138,000 kn. The large expenditure on railways is due to the fact that political rather than economic considerations guided their construction; indeed, in 1908 there was a deficit of 78,000,000 kn. on their working, which had to be met by a large increase in tariffs. In the ten years 1902–11 the expenditure of the empire rose from about 1.5 milliards of kronen to more than double that sum.

This rise involved a serious increase in taxation. As the revenue return for 1912 shows, the direct and indirect taxes had become very heavy, and the rise is illustrated by the following figures for some important taxes in 1906 and 1912 :

	1906.	1912.
	<i>Kronen.</i>	<i>Kronen.</i>
Tax on securities . . .	9,139,000	13,153,000
Tax on personal income . .	60,081,000	101,717,000
Excise duties . . .	366,872,000	420,216,000

Taxation in Austria operates with a distinct bias against industry and the professional classes and therefore is fraught with danger for centres of industry. Thus in Austria all joint-stock companies are taxed 10 per cent. on their profits, and these profits are estimated by the State so as to include much that is not properly net profit. Further, an additional tax may be imposed by the province and by the commune, so that as much as 20–30 per cent. in all often has to be paid. There is a heavy house tax, a tax on the income from securities, a tax on personal income, and a further tax on salaries exceeding £266 per annum. This heavy taxation inevitably falls with especial pressure on industrial provinces such as Bohemia and Moravia.

In strong contrast to the heavy taxes on the industrial middle classes, the tax on landed property, which brought in 75,000,000 kn. in 1896, fell to 51,000,000 kn. in 1912, and is, in fact, the only Austrian tax which has shown a decrease of recent years. In the payment of taxes on revenue also the agriculturist is favoured ; so that it is not surprising that the agrarian party and the lower middle class (as opposed to the capitalists) had a large majority in the Austrian Parliament.

The following table shows the amount paid in direct taxes and in excise by Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia respectively in the year 1909 :



	Real Taxes.	Per cent. of Total.	Personal Taxes.	Per cent. of Total.	Excise.	Per cent. of Total.	Excise Tax in kn. per head of population.
	1,000 kn.		1,000 kn.		1,000 kn.		
Bohemia	39,131	32	87,762	31	141,779	56.78	20.9
Moravia	14,055		29,720		88,888		33.8
Silesia	2,911	1.7	5,234	2.5	24,398	6.01	33.4
All Austria	164,805	100	370,141	100	406,191	100	14.2

It will be noted that Bohemia and Moravia pay a very large percentage of the Austrian excise, and that relatively to its size Silesia pays a far higher amount than either.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, of the direct and indirect taxes together Bohemia and Moravia pay such a large share as to make the fiscal policy of the empire a matter of vital importance to them. A survey for the year 1912, published in the *Neue Freie Presse* on October 29, 1918, shows that of the 28 million inhabitants of Austria, more than one-third (10.1 millions) inhabited Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; and that these provinces then yielded 33 per cent. of the total Austrian revenue from real property, 34 per cent. of the personal taxes, and nearly 60 per cent. of the excise taxes.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Silesia is somewhat more densely populated: its area is about one-tenth of that of Bohemia, and its population rather more than one-ninth.

<sup>2</sup> The following figures summarize the chief heads of the survey for 1912; statistics for the war period have not been published.

Taxation in 1912.	All Austria. 1,000 kn.	Bohemia. 1,000 kn.	Moravia. 1,000 kn.
Real property taxes:			
Land tax . . . . .	51,224	15,407	7,267
House tax . . . . .	10,556	2,442	1,006
Tax on rents . . . . .	90,702	20,184	5,060
Totals of taxes on real property . . . . .	171,774	39,963	13,906
Personal taxes:			
Tax on earnings . . . . .	36,511	10,094	3,478
Tax on shares . . . . .	75,704	18,892	6,668
Tax on interest . . . . .	13,152	3,468	941
Income-tax . . . . .	101,717	22,347	6,014
Salaries tax . . . . .	4,990	762	294
Personal taxes (totals) . . . . .	232,260	55,631	17,409
Excise taxes (totals) . . . . .	420,216	143,103	86,192
Total gross personal income taxable . . . . .	5,960,596	1,326,121	428,325

The situation was complicated and the burden of taxation increased by the power possessed, and often abused, by the provinces and the communes of levying provincial and local taxes. This they could do by making additions to the State taxes. Such additions, however, might not exceed 10 per cent. of these taxes without the authorization of the Emperor.

Apart from this limit the Imperial Government had very little control over the taxing power of the provinces, which might impose even their own excise duties. It could, however, bargain with them; thus, for example, in 1901, when the tax on alcohol was raised, part of the additional revenue was apportioned by the Imperial Government to the provinces on the condition that they imposed no local excise duties.

In 1909 the provincial revenue and expenditure of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia were as follows :

## REVENUE (in 1,000 kn.)

	<i>Bohemia.</i>	<i>Moravia.</i>	<i>Silesia.</i>
Taxes . . . . .	68,054	24,592	7,264
Fines . . . . .	29	6	3
State and Church Funds . . . . .	146	169	347
Surplus of Cumulative Orphanage Funds . . . . .	615	448	70
Administration Fees, Indemnities . . . . .	3,268	2,019	972
Income from Property and Undertakings . . . . .	2,109	2,118	606
Sundry Receipts . . . . .	14	55	8
Capital and Cash Receipts . . . . .	21,195	15,995	5,048
	<u>95,430</u>	<u>45,402</u>	<u>14,318</u>

## EXPENDITURE (in 1,000 kn.)

	<i>Bohemia.</i>	<i>Moravia.</i>	<i>Silesia.</i>
General Management of Province . . . . .	2,829	2,312	419
Provisions and Pensions . . . . .	770	807	65
Public Safety . . . . .	2,200	1,169	196
Military Purposes . . . . .	664	158	122
Public Health . . . . .	13,622	6,567	2,406
Provident Institutions . . . . .	3,255	2,145	354
Religion, Instruction, &c. . . . .	52,504	21,762	5,155
Agriculture . . . . .	2,791	2,011	164
Industry, Trade, Mining . . . . .	290	204	18
Communications and Public Works . . . . .	10,325	3,788	2,133
Service of Debt . . . . .	5,586	3,007	595
Landed Property . . . . .	178	180	19
Various Outgoings . . . . .	—	321	—
Capital and Cash Dues . . . . .	389	969	2,667
Totals . . . . .	<u>95,403</u>	<u>45,400</u>	<u>14,313</u>

It may be noted that Bohemia's expenditure was larger than that of any other province, lower Austria coming next with 72,589,185 kn.; and that Silesia's expenditure was, relatively to its size, far greater than that of Bohemia.<sup>1</sup>

The amount of supplementary local taxation has risen enormously of recent years, and in many cases is a heavy burden.

## (2) BANKS AND FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Till 1848, Czechs did not take much part in Austrian finance and commerce; but after the liberation of the peasants in that year, there was a renaissance of Czech industry. In the national movement which followed, efforts were made to free the peasant from the clutch of moneylenders, and to provide capital for small industries; and thus the savings banks and credit institutions on the Schulze-Delitzsch or Raiffeisen model came into existence.

The movement, however, was not helped by the National Bank (afterwards called the Austro-Hungarian Bank), which refused to have any dealings with the savings banks. Accordingly, in 1868, these institutions founded their own bank for Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, the Živnoštska Banká (Industrial Bank), now the most important of the Czech banks. From this date began the rise of the sugar and the agricultural machinery industries and the economic struggle of the Czechs and Germans.

Banks of every kind have had marked success in

<sup>1</sup> In 1910 the State accounts were balanced at the following amounts: Bohemia, 81,172,881 kn.; Moravia, 48,257,400 kn.; Silesia, 15,678,650 kn. According to the *Neue Freie Presse* for October 29, 1918, the State taxes had risen in 1912 to the following sums: Bohemia, 95,500,000 kn.; Moravia, 31,300,000 kn.; Silesia (excluding excise taxes), 8,900,000 kn.

Bohemia and Moravia during the last 20 years. The deposits of savings banks and credit institutions have been trebled, and the shareholders' capital of the large banks has increased thirtyfold. Many of the Bohemian banks have established branches in other provinces of Austria and have financed enterprises outside Austria. Yet, in spite of this large increase in Czech banking institutions, lower Austria (through Vienna) is still the financial centre of Austria.<sup>1</sup>

A list of the leading Bohemian and Moravian banks and of the Austrian banks with interests in Bohemia and Moravia will be found in the Appendix (Table III).

*Savings Banks.*—The following figures show that 49 per cent. of the Austrian savings banks and 39·3 per cent. of Austrian accounts are in Bohemia and Moravia, but that, judged by the number of separate accounts, the whole of Austria ranks after Germany and France in respect of thrift:

1909.	<i>No. of Savings Banks.</i>	<i>No. of Accounts.</i>
Austria . . . . .	669	4,262,108
Lower Austria . . . . .	83	965,827
Bohemia . . . . .	240	1,420,641
Moravia . . . . .	88	265,440
German Empire . . . . .	—	19,845,329
France . . . . .	—	13,206,564

Of the number of accounts in the Post Office Savings Bank, Bohemia and Moravia supply 33 per cent. ; but Bohemia does not here take the lead as in the case of the savings banks.

*Post Office Savings Bank*

	<i>No. of investors.</i>
Austria . . . . .	2,261,658
Lower Austria . . . . .	763,091
Bohemia . . . . .	480,767
Moravia . . . . .	240,094

<sup>1</sup> The present tense is used here and later without regard to changes which may have taken place since 1914.



*Credit Societies.*—These are of two kinds: (1) Schulze-Delitzsch societies for both rural and urban borrowers; (2) Raiffeisen societies for small landowners.

The former admit as members workmen in all industries, granting credit for a period which, except in rare cases, does not exceed three months. The latter are intended only for agriculturists, and require some guarantee of good character, as well as of financial solvency.

These societies differ in respect of the length of credit given, the limitation of liability, and other conditions, but agree in the fact that the members are acquainted with one another in a small area and guarantee each other's borrowings. The importance of such facilities to the 'small' man who, although short of capital, is of good reputation, cannot be overestimated.

The following figures give the numbers of such societies existing in Austria in 1910, and include those with limited as well as with unlimited liability. It will be seen that 38 per cent. of them are in Bohemia and Moravia. They are chiefly Czech societies.

	<i>No. of Credit Societies.</i>	
All Austria . . . . .	10,905	
Bohemia . . . . .	2,899	} 4,167
Moravia . . . . .	1,268	
Galicia . . . . .	2,683	
Lower Austria (without Vienna)	642	

### (3) INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN CAPITAL

Industrial undertakings in Bohemia and Moravia are in many cases controlled by great joint-stock companies or combines in Vienna, and these in turn are frequently connected with German firms whose business is international. For instance, the Mannes-

mann Tube Co. of Vienna, with works at Komotau in Bohemia, is an offshoot of the great Mannesmann Tube Works at Düsseldorf (cap. 61,000,000 mks., chief office in Berlin), to which its share capital of 20,000,000 mks. belongs.

In other cases the influence of German capital and industrial control is direct. The General Electricity Co. of Berlin, for example (cap. 155,000,000 mks.), has branches in Bohemia and Moravia at Brünn, Eger, Karlsbad, Mährisch-Ostrau, Mährisch-Schönberg, Olmütz, Prague, Reichenberg, Teplitz, Trautenau, and Warnsdorf, as well as at Troppau and Teschen in Austrian Silesia.

The following companies either have works in Bohemia which are controlled and financed from Germany, or have works in both Bohemia and Saxony :

The German-Austrian Mining Co. (cap. 18,000,000 mks.) has its directorate in Dresden and mines in Bohemia and Saxony.

The Dux Coal Co. (cap. 5,000,000 mks.) has a director at Aachen and mines at Dux and Leipzig.

The Triptis Co. (cap. 6,000,000 mks.) has directors at Vienna, Leipzig, Berlin, and Dresden, and porcelain works at Teplitz.

The Dux Porcelain Works (cap. 1,500,000 mks.) has its head-quarters at Berlin, and factories at Dux and near Weimar.

The Saxon-Bohemian Portland Cement Manufacturing Co. (cap. 3,500,000 mks.) has its head-quarters and sales office at Dresden, and its factories at Tschischkowitz, near Lobositz, in Bohemia.

The shares of all the above-mentioned companies are quoted on the Berlin Stock Exchange, as also are the following Bohemian and Moravian railway shares: preference shares in the Bohemian Northern Railway, the Bohemian Western Railway, and the Moravian

Boundary Railway (all now taken over by the Austrian State Railways); shares in the Aussig-Teplitz Railway, which has directors at Leipzig as well as in Bohemia, the Buschtehrad Railway, the Prague-Dux Railway, and the Brünn Railway.

### (E) GENERAL REMARKS

During the years 1902-12 there was a marked increase in the productivity of all industrial countries, and Austria was no exception to the rule. In both Austria and Germany this increase is put at about 50 per cent., and it must be remembered that Bohemia and Moravia are the industrial core of Austria.

Yet the increase of wealth is estimated to be far less in Austria than in Germany, and this is not sufficiently accounted for by the fact that in 1902 Austria started from a lower level. Among causes that may be assigned are the excessive taxation of joint-stock companies and inadequate means of transport, as a result of which the prices of building and other materials have been raised and competition with other countries has been made difficult. Bricks, for example, cost nearly 100 per cent. more at Reichenberg than at Berlin, and the price of cement is 26 per cent. higher in Bohemia than in Germany. Coal also is generally more expensive in Austria than in Germany. The taxation of net profits is four times as great in Austria as in Switzerland, and this is one reason why the industrialists of Bohemia have been unwilling to put down the expensive plant required to produce electricity from water-power, while those of Switzerland do so without hesitation. For Bohemia with its ring-fence of mountains and its many mountain streams this is a serious matter. To some industries the shortage of railways and waterways is especially detrimental. The complaint is made that

there are large tracts of forest which remain useless owing to the absence of facilities for transporting timber.

Doubtless there are other factors which contribute to the profit-earning inferiority of these two provinces. It is stated that the Bohemian mechanic gets less work out of expensive machines than the mechanic in Germany. In Germany, for instance, a worker will produce 100 to 110 dozen pairs of boots weekly, while in Austria with the same appliances the output is 75 to 95 dozen only. Improved technical education, however, should be able to remedy this, and there is little doubt that the Czechs show marked ability as engineers and are in a fair way wholly to supply the demand for machines in the Czech provinces, and that in the iron foundries the Bohemian hand-moulders are exceptionally good at their work.

Bohemia and Moravia are to a remarkable extent independent of the produce and raw materials of other countries. Apart from tropical produce, iron, salt, and wool are the only articles of which a large supply from outside is necessary, and the organizing ability of the Czech industrialist has improved greatly of recent years.

There is no reason, therefore, why an improved financial system, better facilities for transport, and freedom from the political strife which has been so injurious, should not greatly increase the productivity of these two provinces. The external demand for their products, however, will depend on factors which at present it is impossible to forecast. Certainly the restoration of peace in the Balkan States, and an increase of their prosperity, will increase their already considerable demand for Bohemian and Moravian goods ; but it should be pointed out that Bohemia and Moravia cannot carry their goods to the sea either by rail or water without



passing through other countries. The Elbe route and the northerly routes of the proposed canal systems may be controlled by foreign and possibly hostile Powers ; the Danube route to which the new canal will give access lies similarly outside the control of Bohemia, and the nearest sea-port, Trieste, cannot be reached without passing through German Austria.

## APPENDIX

TABLE I. STAPLE CROPS

TOTAL PRODUCTION IN 1913 (IN HUNDREDS OF METRIC TONS)  
OF BOHEMIA, MORAVIA, AND ALL AUSTRIA

	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Rye.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Pota- toes.</i>	<i>Sugar Beet.</i>	<i>Fodder Beet.</i>	<i>Meadow Hay.</i>
Bohemia .	4,837	9,350	6,628	9,573	33,399	40,703	9,906	17,630
Moravia .	1,884	3,688	3,960	3,490	18,633	22,446	6,679	4,863
All Austria	16,228	27,045	17,502	26,774	115,529	69,630	38,615	91,530

TABLE II

BEET AND SUGAR INDUSTRY IN AUSTRIA AND BOHEMIA FOR THE TWO PERIODS 1901-4 AND 1911-13  
(WEIGHTS IN TONS)

	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Beetroot worked in Austria-Hungary	—	8,940,000	7,130,000	7,780,000	11,277,750	8,674,160	14,003,880
No. of Mills worked	—	216	216	215	196	—	—
Beetroot worked in Bohemia	—	4,000,000	2,860,000	3,620,000	4,985,640	2,407,790	5,400,120
No. of Mills worked	—	128	127	127	166	112	110
Total production of sugar in Austria-Hungary	—	1,291,127	1,051,264	1,159,221	1,522,785	1,260,160	2,091,760
Total production of sugar in Bohemia (equivalent of raw sugar)	—	653,925	437,931	559,381	718,577	323,172	792,247
Total exports of sugar from Bohemia	—	422,531	431,566	304,573	—	—	—
Export of sugar from Austria-Hungary to United Kingdom	371,450	37,576	21,684	13,003	340,000	—	—
Export of sugar from Austria-Hungary to India	—	240,646	282,763	184,920	—	—	—
Export of sugar from Austria-Hungary to India	—	1,723	—	—	—	—	—
Export of sugar from Austria-Hungary to India	—	102,512	—	—	—	—	—
Total Export from Austria-Hungary (raw and refined in equivalent of raw)	693,030	817,098	819,070	582,258	674,800	—	—
No. of Refineries in Bohemia	—	—	9	9	7	7	7
Percentage of sugar in beet in Bohemia	—	15.8	15.3	15.5	15.8	14.7	15.9
Percentage of sugar in beet in Austria	—	14.5	14.8	14.9	14.8	14.5	14.9
Molasses produced in Austria	—	—	284,024	236,652	322,700	231,900	—
Amount used in distilleries	—	—	209,261	172,553	2,437	1,739	—
Molasses produced in Bohemia	—	—	117,663	109,274	—	—	—
Amount exported	—	—	49	nil.	—	—	—

The whole from British Consular Reports and Bohemian official *Erntestatistik*.

## TABLE III.—BANKS

(a) LEADING AUSTRIAN BANKS WITH INTERESTS IN BOHEMIA  
AND MORAVIA

*Austro-Hungarian Bank.*—This is the principal bank of the Empire, with a share capital of 210,000,000 kn., and head offices at Vienna. Of its 54 branches, 22 are in Bohemia and Moravia ; and of the 82 agencies attached to these branches, 54 are in these two provinces.

*Anglo-Austrian Bank.*—Vienna. Share capital, 100,000,000 kn. Of its 29 branches, 16 are in Bohemia and Moravia.

*Vienna Banking Company.*—Share capital, 130,000,000 kn. Has 12 out of 34 branches in Bohemia and Moravia.

*Imperial Chartered Bank of the Austrian Kingdoms.*—Has 11 branches in Bohemia.

*Imperial Chartered Austrian Credit Institution for Trade and Industry* (Kredit Anstalt).—Vienna. Share capital, 150,000,000 kn. Finances ironworks, sugar factories, and distilleries in Bohemia ; breweries in Moravia.

*Imperial Chartered Bank and Exchange Company 'Merkur'.*—Vienna. Share capital, 5,000,000 kn. Has 13 out of 21 branches in Bohemia and Moravia.

*Imperial Chartered General Commercial Bank.*—Vienna. Share capital, 42,000,000 kn. Branches at six towns in Bohemia and Moravia.

*Central Bank of German Savings Banks.*—Vienna. Share capital, 25,000,000 kn. Founded in 1901 by the German Credit Association ; of its numerous branches, 90 are in Bohemia and Moravia. The directorate of these Viennese banks is exclusively German-Austrian.

## (b) THE LEADING BANKS IN BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA. (These banks are guaranteed by the province whose needs they serve.)

*Bank of the Kingdom of Bohemia.*—Founded by the Bohemian authorities in 1890, and empowered by statute, in addition to the ordinary business of a bank, to organize credit societies and to make loans to communes or to individuals for improvements. Reserve funds, 20,795,000 kn.

*Mortgage Bank of the Kingdom of Bohemia.*—Founded by the Bohemian authorities to lend money on real estate. Reserve funds, 9,241,000 kn.



*Mortgage Institution of the Bohemian Savings Bank.*—Founded by the Bohemian Savings Bank in 1906. Does not aim at profit. Advances money on estates up to two-thirds of their value, on houses up to half, and on entailed estates up to one-third of their value.

*Mortgage Institution of the Prague Savings Bank.*—Founded by the Prague Savings Bank in 1906. Not for profit. Conditions much the same as the last-mentioned bank.

*Mortgage Bank of the Margravate of Moravia.*—Brünn. Founded by the Moravian authorities in 1906, to lend money on Moravian real estate. Reserve funds, 3,621,694 kn.

*Agricultural Bank of the Margravate of Moravia.*—Brünn. Founded by the Moravian authorities in 1897 to make loans to communes and railway enterprises for improvements. Reserve fund, 211,643 kn.

*Mortgage Institution of the First Moravian Savings Bank in Brünn.*—Founded in 1892. Not for profit. Reserve fund, 4,400,000 kn.

(c) JOINT-STOCK BANKS WITH HEAD-QUARTERS IN BOHEMIA.

(Conducted by Czechs, unless otherwise specified.)

*Central Bank of Bohemian Savings Banks.*—Prague, with branches at Brünn and Vienna. Share capital, 25,000,000 kn. Founded in 1903.

*Bohemian Industrial Bank.*—Prague and Vienna. Founded in 1898. Share capital, 40,000,000 kn. Has 17 branches in Bohemia.

*Imperial Chartered Bohemian Union Bank.*—Prague. Founded in 1872. Share capital, 65,000,000 kn. Conducted by German-Austrians. Has branches in Bohemia and Moravia as well as in Troppau, Salzburg, Villach, Linz, and Graz. Finances railways, breweries, distilleries, automobile factories, copper-works, and steel foundries.

*Agricultural Credit Bank for Bohemia.*—Czech and German-Austrian. Share capital, 10,500,000 kn.

*Industrial Bank.*—Prague. Share capital, 80,000,000 kn. Has 15 branches in Bohemia and Moravia as well as branches at Vienna, Trieste, Lemberg, and Cracow.

*Credit Bank.*—Prague. Share capital, 25,000,000 kn. Finances sugar, coal, and petroleum industries in Galicia.

*North Austrian Bank for Industry, Trade, and Agriculture.*—Share capital, 4,000,000 kn. German-Austrian. Offices at Brünn and Witkowitz.

*Credit Bank for Trade and Industry.*—Brünn. Share capital, 100,000 kn.

*Agrarian Bank.*—Prague. Share capital, 4,000,000 kn.

*Brewing Industry Bank.*—Prague. German-Austrian. Share capital, 2,000,000 kn.

*Bohemian Joint Stock Bank.*—Prague. Share capital, 3,000,000 kn. Has a sister institution in the United States. Branches in Brünn, Cernowitz, Cracow, Lemberg, Trieste, and Vienna.

*Moravian Agrarian and Industrial Bank.*—Brünn. Share capital, 12,000,000 kn. Has five branches.

*Imperial Chartered Moravian Discount Bank.*—Brünn. German-Austrian and Czech. Share capital, 8,000,000 kn.

*Credit Loan Bank of Königgrätz.*—Share capital, 15,000,000 kn. Branches in Prague, Pilsen, and four other towns.

*Mährisch-Ostrau Trade and Industry Bank.*—Share capital, 1,600,000 kn. German. Finances cement, potato, tile, and coal undertakings.

*Land Bank.*—Prague. Share capital, 9,000,000 kn. Has four branches.

*Bohemian Discount Bank.*—Prague. German-Austrian and Czech. Share capital, 72,000,000 kn. Has 13 branches.

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### MAPS

Bohemia and Moravia are covered by two sheets (M. 33 Wien, M. 34 Krakau; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' map published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

The Austrian Staff maps are on the scales of 1 : 75,000 and 1 : 200,000. Bohemia and Moravia are covered by 96 sheets of the former and by 18 of the latter.

For Ethnography, see note on maps in *Austria*, &c. (No. 1 of this series), p. 28.









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# SLOVAKIA

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# I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

## (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

SLOVAKIA is the name given to that portion of north-western Hungary which is mainly inhabited by the Slovaks, a branch of the Slav race, and indicates a racial rather than a political division. The region lies roughly between  $47\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  and  $49\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  north latitude and  $17^{\circ}$  and  $23^{\circ}$  east longitude.

On the north-west and north Slovakia stretches to the boundary between Hungary and Austria and is divided by the River March, the White Carpathians, and the East Beskid range of the Great Carpathians, from Moravia, Silesia, and Galicia.

The southern and eastern limits are less determinate: for convenience a line has been taken along certain county boundaries. Starting from Pozsony (Pressburg) in the west, this follows, in a generally eastern direction, the southern limits of the following counties: Pozsony, Nyitra (Neutra), Bars, Esztergom, Hont, Nógrád, Gömör, Abauj-Torna, Zemplén, and Ung. Thus on the east the boundary follows in general the course of the Tisza (Theiss) to its most northerly point, and then the western edge of the valley of the Latorcza.

The region thus delimited includes seventeen Hungarian counties, with an area of approximately 22,000 square miles, which is equivalent to about two-thirds of Ireland. The following table gives the details:



	<i>Area in sq. km.</i>
Árva . . . . .	2,019
Bars . . . . .	2,724
Esztergom (Gran) . . . . .	1,077
Hont . . . . .	2,633
Liptó (Liptau) . . . . .	2,246
Nógrád (Neograd) . . . . .	4,128
Nyitra (Neutra) . . . . .	5,519
Pozsony (Pressburg) . . . . .	4,370
Trencsén (Trentschin) . . . . .	4,456
Turócz . . . . .	1,123
Zólyom (Sohl) . . . . .	2,634
Abauj-Torna (Zips) . . . . .	3,317
Gömör and Kis-Hont . . . . .	4,279
Sáros . . . . .	3,652
Szepes (Zips) . . . . .	3,654
Ung . . . . .	3,230
Zemplén . . . . .	6,282
Total . . . . .	57,343
or 22,055 sq. miles	

## (2) SURFACE, RIVER SYSTEM, AND LAKES

### *Surface*

Of the mountains of the Slovak territory, nearly all belong to the Carpathian system, the only exception being the Pilis group in Esztergom, south of the Danube, which belongs to the Alpine system. The chain of the West Carpathians begins at Pozsony with the Little Carpathians (Kis-karpatók), which connect the Alps with the Carpathians and run north-east, forming the watershed between the March and the Vág (Waag). Beyond the Miava, the chief tributary of the March, the White Carpathians (3,350 ft.), so called from their white dolomite formation, continue in the same direction as far as the Jablunka Pass, which is on the main route to Silesia. From this point the West Beskids run eastwards in a great curve to the River Poprád, the valley of which divides the Carpathians into two parts. Between the Poprád and the

Latorcza, a tributary of the Tisza, lie the East Beskids, and the chain is continued in the Carpathian Forest Mountains. To the south of the East Beskids lie the Vikorlat Mountains.

The area between this outer ring and the central plain known as the Alföld is occupied by a complicated system of mountains, often known as the Hungarian Highlands. They form the culminating point of the Carpathian system, lying between the Vág (Waag) and the Árva, the Poprád and the Dunajec. These mountain chains lie roughly parallel to each other, and consist, from north to south, of :

(1) The High Tátra (Magas Tátra), of which the highest point, Gerlachfalvi-Csúcs (Gerlsdorfer Spitze), reaches 8,700 ft. The western end of the High Tátra slopes down to the Liptoi Magura range, which extends to the confluence of the Vág and the Arva.

(2) The Low Tátra (Alacsony or Nižna Tátra), between the Vág and the Garam (Gran), culminating in the peak of Djumbir (6,700 ft.). To the west of the Low Tátra are the Fatra Mountains, merging into the Nyitra Galgocz range, while to the south-east are the Gömör-Szepes Ore Mountains (Erzgebirge), between the Hernad and the Bodva.

(3) The Hungarian Ore Mountains, which are divided into several groups, among them being the Ostrovski and Vepor Mountains. The Branyiszko Mountains connect this chain with the range of the East Beskids.

(4) The Matra Hills, which rise abruptly from the plain of the Alföld in the extreme south, merging at their eastern end into the Bükk Mountains.

At right angles more or less to all these ranges, and along the left bank of the Hernad, runs the chain of the Eperjes-Tokai mountains, including to the south the famous Hegalya vine district.

The south-western part of the Slovak provinces consists of the Little Alföld or Pozsony basin, which lies in the curve of the Danube between Pozsony and the Garam, and is connected with the Great Alföld, the fertile alluvial plain of Hungary.

*Rivers and Lakes*

The rivers of Slovakia belong almost entirely to the Danube system, all except the Dunajec and the Poprád (Popper) draining into the Danube either directly or through one of its tributaries. The main watershed is that part of the Carpathian chain known as the High and Low Tatra Mountains.

In western Slovakia the most important rivers are the March, which, with its tributary the Miava, forms for a certain distance the western frontier of the country, and the Vág. The latter river receives as its tributaries the important Árva on its right and the Turócz on its left. Following an almost parallel course is the Nyitra (Neutra), which joins the Vág (Waag) shortly before the junction of the latter river with the Danube at Komorn (Komárom). The floods caused by these two rivers cause serious damage in the plain which they enclose. An almost exactly similar course is pursued by the Garam (Gran), while the much shorter Ipoly (Eipel) flows into the Danube rather farther to the east.

In eastern Slovakia, the Tisza (Theiss), one of the largest tributaries of the Danube, forms for some distance the south-eastern boundary of the district. Its chief tributaries are the Hernad and the Latorcza, of which the former in its turn receives the Sajó, with its affluents the Turócz and the Bodva.

All these rivers have their sources on the southern slopes of the Tatra Mountains. The Dunajec, on the other hand, rises on the northern side of the Tatra range, flows eastwards until joined by its tributary the Poprád, and then in a northerly direction to join the main stream of the Vistula. As already said, these rivers are the only ones of the Slovakian system which do not drain into the Danube.

The Danube and the Tisza alone are navigable among the rivers of Slovakia. The larger of the other streams are, indeed, much used for floating timber, &c., but in general they are only mountain torrents until they

reach the Alföld, when they flow more slowly and often cause severe floods. These are aggravated by the very slight slope of the plain towards the streams and the equally slight fall in the river beds. In very rainy years the water in the rivers soaks through the banks and forms swamps some way from the stream.

The only lakes of importance are those in the High Tatra. There are 80 on the north side, and 39 on the south, of which Lake Csorba is the largest. It lies on the watershed between the Vág and the Poprád at an altitude of 4,430 ft., with an area of 5 acres and a depth of 67 ft.

### (3) CLIMATE

The mountainous character of northern Slovakia naturally means a corresponding degree of cold, and the mean annual temperatures vary from 50° F. (10° C.) on the lowlands near the Danube, to 35° F. (1½° C.) among the mountains. The hottest month is July, with temperatures 20° F. (11° C.) above the annual mean, while in January the temperatures are 20° F. (11° C.) below. During three months the mean temperature remains below freezing-point. The Danube in consequence usually has ice upon it in January and February, and during severe winters the ice may appear first in mid-November, and last until the middle of March.

The total annual precipitation amounts to between 24 and 28 inches (600–700 mm.) along the south of Slovakia, and reaches 40 inches (1,000 mm.) in the northern and most elevated regions. Much falls as snow during the winter months. January and February are the driest months. On the southern lowlands the wettest month is June, while October is almost as wet. East of the Tatra there is no secondary maximum in October ; north-west of the Tatra, towards the main Carpathian chain, July is the wettest month, while among the lower western mountains May takes this place, with a secondary maximum in October.



#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

As might be expected in a country which contains such a large proportion of marsh land, malarial diseases are very frequent. Malaria, intermittent fever, and diphtheria are responsible for a great many deaths, while tuberculosis, due to insanitary conditions and bad housing, is also prevalent. With more knowledge of modern conditions, and drainage of the large areas of marsh, these diseases may be expected to decrease considerably.

Medical attendance is in a very backward state, as may be seen from the fact that in the country districts of Slovakia 60 per cent. of the deaths have not been certified by a doctor. In spite of this deficiency, however, the rate of infantile mortality is not abnormally high, being 20 per cent. of living births. It is as well to remember that in view of the defects in the medical service too much reliance cannot be placed upon the official enumeration of causes of death.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

##### *Race*

The population of Slovakia is some  $3\frac{1}{2}$  millions, of whom about half are Slovaks, about 36 per cent. Magyars, and 6 per cent. Germans. The proportion of Slovaks in the rural districts rises to 53 per cent., while the Magyars form exactly half of the town dwellers.

The distribution of the races is clearly shown by the sharp linguistic boundary which separates Slovaks from Magyars. This runs eastwards from Pozsony, passing north of Vác and south of Kassa, to the borders of Ruthenia. South of this line is Magyararia, extending to the Drave and the Maros as far east as Arad; within Magyararia, except for one district round Budapest, a second slightly to the west, and a third far to the south, in Bács-Bodrog, the people are entirely Magyar. There is a German enclave east of the Tátra,

which almost divides the Slovak area into two, and along the eastern mountain border the people are Ruthenes (Little Russians).

If we divide Slovakia into two parts, Slovakia proper and Ruthene Slovakia, the latter of which comprises the north-eastern counties, the variations in the relative numbers of the different races during the last thirty years are roughly as follows. In Slovakia proper the Slovaks have increased by 13 per cent. and the Magyars by 50 per cent., while the Germans show a decrease of 4 per cent., and the Jews, who number 107,000, of 2 per cent. In Ruthene Slovakia the Slovaks have declined by 8 per cent., whereas the Ruthenes have increased by 24 per cent., the Magyars by 70 per cent., and the Jews, who are 70,000 in number, by 6 per cent. The increase among the Magyars, which is remarkably uniform, exceeds the increase of the population.

A process of 'Magyarization' has been going on in the case of all the subject races in Hungary, and the Slovaks are no exception to this rule, although in spite of great discouragement they have succeeded to a large extent in maintaining their national feeling.

### *Language*

Slovak is a recognized Slav dialect, very much resembling Czech, with a literature of its own. Many varying dialects are spoken, which have been much influenced in the west by Moravian and in the east by Polish.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

The population of Slovakia, numbering about 3,420,000 in 1910, is now presumably over  $3\frac{1}{2}$  millions. The overwhelming majority of the inhabitants are settled in the rural districts. In the mountainous areas the density of the population is below 128 per square mile (50 per sq. km.), except where the people

are crowded along the valleys of the Nyitra, the Vág, and other rivers. In the neighbourhood of Pozsony, and on the Little Alföld to the east of Pozsony, the rural population attains its maximum density of 256 per sq. mile (100 per sq. km.).

### *Towns and Villages*

The three largest towns of Slovakia are Pozsony (Pressburg), with 78,223 inhabitants, Kassa (Kaschau), an iron centre, with 44,211, and Vác (Waitzen), a cathedral town of considerable importance, with 19,000. Other towns are: Esztergom (Gran, 18,000),<sup>18</sup> Eperjes (16,323), and Selmecz(Schemnitz)-és-Bélabánya (15,185). A noticeable feature of the Slovak provinces is the great number of small towns, particularly in the centre and west of the country, where they are more numerous than anywhere else in Hungary.

### *Movement*

The enormous emigration which goes on from the Slovak provinces, chiefly to the United States, takes some thousands of people away yearly. There is also a certain amount of internal migration, as many of the Slovaks go to Germany and Denmark as labourers during the summer.

The following table shows the increase in the total population of the two divisions of Slovakia:

SLOVAKIA PROPER			
1900.	1910.	Increase.	<i>Excess of births over deaths.</i>
2,420,000	2,566,000	136,000 5.4 per cent.	297,000 11.8 per cent.
RUTHENE SLOVAKIA			
828,000	853,000	25,000 3.0 per cent.	112,000 13.3 per cent.

The next table shows the average vital statistics per 10,000 inhabitants per annum during the decade 1900-10.

## SLOVAKIA PROPER

	<i>Births.</i>	<i>Deaths.</i>	<i>Natural increase.</i>	<i>Infantile mortality.</i>
Slovaks . .	389	271	118	20 per cent.
Magyars . .	353	245	108	20 „

## RUTHENE SLOVAKIA

Slovaks . .	255	209	146	18 per cent.
Ruthenes . .	413	249	164	18 „
Magyars . .	378	245	130	21 „



## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

A.D.

- 830-906. The Moravian Empire, in which Slovaks were included.
- 906. The Magyars conquer Moravia and southern Slovak districts.
- 1001. St. Stephen of Hungary extends his kingdom to the north.
- 1141-61. King Géza II of Hungary establishes colonies of Germans in northern Hungary.
- 1241. The Mongol invasion of eastern Europe. Slovak districts devastated. Hungarian kings encourage further German colonization.
- 1412. King Sigismund pledges thirteen royal towns in northern Hungary to the Kingdom of Poland.
- 1415. Beginning of Hussite wars. Hussite doctrines extend to North Hungary and are largely adopted by Slovaks.
- 1526. Battle of Mohács. The Turks overrun most of Hungary, including many Slovak districts.
- 1610. Lutheranism prevails in Slovak districts. Lutheran Church organized.
- 1616. The Counter-Reformation begins to become effective under leadership of Peter Pázmány, Primate of Hungary 1616-37.
- 1767. Maria Theresa improves position of peasants.
- 1771. Maria Theresa claims possession of north Hungarian towns pledged to Poland.
- 1848-9. Hungarian War of Independence. Serfdom abolished.

### (1) ORIGINS

THE Slovaks are a people belonging to the Western Slav group which includes the Poles, the Wends or Sorbs, and the Czechs; with these last they are racially so closely connected that by some authorities they have been identified with them. A closer examina-

tion of their language, however, which is said to be the nearest to Old Slavonic of all the modern Slav tongues,<sup>1</sup> suggests that they were a separate and perhaps older branch of the Slav family than the Czechs. They are to be found to-day in two compact groups in the north and north-west of Hungary, where they are bounded on the north by Galician Poland; on the east by Hungarian counties, where the population is Ruthenian and Magyar; on the south by Magyar districts of Hungary; and on the north-west by Moravia and parts of Silesia, where the population is Czech. For a short distance on the west the Slovaks touch Lower Austria. Geographically, therefore, the Slovak settlements broaden the narrow bridge of Slav districts which connects Bohemia with the bulk of the eastern and northern Slavs.

## (2) EARLY SETTLEMENTS

The Slovaks probably reached Moravia at the same time as the Czechs in the fifth or sixth century A.D., and at once came into contact with German tribes, to whom they were for a time subject. Later they appear under a native prince in the Empire of Great Moravia. After being conquered by the Magyars in the tenth century, the Slovaks of the south appear to have been displaced or absorbed; the rest became, and, except for a short period of connexion with Poland, have since remained, subjects of the King of Hungary. Their history, therefore, in its main lines is contained in that of Hungary.

As regards the mass of the people, the Slovaks have retained their national characteristics, their language, customs, and usages, and within their ancient limits have remained distinct from the Magyars.

They have been able to absorb largely the German colonies which from the twelfth century onwards were encouraged by the Magyar kings. These German

<sup>1</sup> Seton-Watson (*Racial Problems in Hungary*, p. 332) quotes the Slovak writer Dobrowsky (*Geschichte der böhmischen Sprache*, 1818, p. 32) to this effect.

settlers established a number of towns extending across the north-west of Hungary to Transylvania; and during the Middle Ages they formed compact and separate communities consisting of traders, artisans, and miners, their chief centre being the mining villages round Körmöczbánya (Kremnitz). They lived in walled towns from which they excluded non-German peoples, and they were superior in education and had reached a higher level of efficiency in trade than their neighbours. In spite of these advantages, when the special privileges which they had enjoyed were rescinded in the fifteenth century, they became largely absorbed by the surrounding population, as has so often happened in the case of German colonies. A considerable German element is, however, still to be found.

### (3) THE HUSSITE INFLUENCE

During the fifteenth century the Hussite doctrines spread from Bohemia through Moravia to northern Hungary, bringing with them the Czech language, which since this time has had an established place among the Slovaks. Their own language was still at this period an unwritten tongue; and Czech, used at first for the new religious teaching, became, and for long continued to be, the only written language among the Slovaks. It is still the language of the Slovak Lutheran Church, which established itself in northern Hungary as a successor to the Hussite movement, and at one time included nearly the whole Slovak population. The fall of Bohemia affected the Lutheran Slovaks unfavourably; and during the Counter-Reformation, which began to be effective in Hungary about 1620, the bulk of the Slovaks again became Catholic, largely owing to the untiring efforts of the greatest Hungarian ecclesiastic, Peter Pázmány. In 1631, when the Slovak territories were detached from Bohemia and Moravia, the earlier Czech literary influences became weaker and the Slovaks began to develop their own vernacular.

The Reformation had none of the character of a national movement among the Slovaks that it had among the Czechs. In the religious wars the Slovaks even for a time supported the Magyars in their struggle against the Habsburgs; and Rákoczy, the Magyar hero, recruited some of his best soldiers among the Slovaks.

The bulk of the peasantry were still serfs; their nobles had by the seventeenth century become completely Magyarized; and there was so far no conscious feeling of nationalism among the Slovaks.

#### (4) THE NATIONAL MOVEMENT

During the first half of the eighteenth century, Hungary, freed at last from Turkish rule by the Treaty of Passarowitz (1718), was recovering from a long period of internal and external strife. The reign of Maria Theresa brought measures of relief for the peasant populations which benefited the Slovaks—in particular the regulation of 1767, by which liberty of migration was restored to the peasants—and there was nothing in her government likely to arouse strong political feeling among the subject nationalities.

It was the well-meant but tactless efforts of Joseph II to Germanize Hungary that aroused the spirit of opposition. The Magyars, among whom it produced an extremely rapid growth of national sentiment, adopted in their turn a policy of suppressing, or at least discouraging, the non-Magyar nationalities. A reaction on the part of those who felt the existence of their separate groups endangered was the natural result, and was strengthened by the wave of national feeling which began to sweep over the whole of Europe after the Treaty of Vienna.

Before the middle of the nineteenth century the Slovaks had felt its influence; and when, in 1848–9, the Magyars attempted to throw off the Austrian yoke, the Slovaks took the opportunity of rising against them. The revolt in both cases failed; the Slovaks were brought once more into subjection, but the



feeling of hostility between the two races was increased. The Compromise of 1867 sacrificed the interests of the Slovaks as it did those of other subordinate nationalities, and they were left more completely at the mercy of the Hungarian Government.

It has been urged that Deák and those who acted with him in the interests of Hungary, being far-seeing and moderate statesmen, intended to procure favourable treatment for the non-Magyar peoples. The Law of Nationalities of 1868 was in fact conceived in a most conciliatory spirit; and, if the same spirit had been shown in its administration, the subject peoples might have been reconciled. Events proved, however, that the Magyars were determined to assert their own nationalism at the expense of the Slovak minority; and unfortunately they were able to carry out their policy under the forms of a Parliamentary Government in which they could always secure a majority. After 1867 the German elements in Austria and the Magyars in Hungary gradually drifted into a policy of mutual support against the rising Slav nationalities—an alliance not founded on mutual sympathy, but on the common danger.

The new Hungarian Constitution provided no safeguards for the Slovaks, who since 1868 have had a hard and bitter struggle to maintain their national existence. As among other peoples, the spread of education among the Slovaks has helped to increase the sense of nationality, which has also expressed itself in a linguistic and literary revival. Before the middle of the nineteenth century there had been a great increase of books and periodicals in the vernacular; literary societies were founded and a definite attempt made to organize the schools. The study of Slovak, as distinct from the Czech language, began to attract students of dialects both among the Slovaks and other Slav peoples. Over the question of orthography violent disputes took place, and the memory of the old connexion of Czech with Protestantism was revived; the Catholic party endeavoured to eliminate Czech influence, while the

Lutheran strove to maintain it. Finally a compromise was reached, and Slovak spelling may be said to have become more or less 'stabilized'. The national idiom received recognition at the Linguistic Conference at Pressburg in 1851; and the Slovak scholars Safařík and Kollar have made notable contributions to its scientific study. The prevalence of the language may be judged to some extent by the fact that in 1910 the sermon was preached in Slovak in 742 Roman Catholic, in 52 Greek Catholic, and in 234 Lutheran churches; it was used for the sermon alternatively with Hungarian in 39 Catholic and 23 Protestant churches, and appears as an accessory language in 15 Catholic and 11 Protestant churches where Hungarian was the usual language of the sermon.<sup>1</sup>

Slovak literature does not exist in any great quantity, as is natural where the educated population is small; yet there is undoubtedly at the present day a living vernacular literature which is considerable in proportion to the number of the people. If, however, the Slovaks were united to their Czech brethren, it is doubtful if they could continue to maintain a separate literary language.

The evidences of national feeling were regarded by the Magyars with apprehension. They had hitherto considered the Slovaks an inferior race, whose destiny it was to be gradually absorbed, and they saw that the movement to promote education and national literature would tend to internal unrest and might possibly encourage the still more dreaded external danger of the Pan-Slav movement.

In 1848-9 the Slavs of Croatia had shown themselves the bitterest and most effective opponents of Magyar aspirations, while the Russian interference of the same period gave the cause of Hungarian independence a blow from which it did not recover for many years. Hence, after 1849, everything Slav became, perhaps not unjustly, suspect.

How far a more conciliatory policy would at this

<sup>1</sup> *Annuaire Statistique Hongrois*, xix, 1911, pp. 434-8.

stage have succeeded in making the Slovaks loyal supporters of the Hungarian Government it is impossible to say, but it is unlikely in any case that the Slovaks would have held aloof from the ceaseless agitation of the other Slav races of Austria and Hungary.

In defence of their own political predominance the Magyars felt compelled to check Slovak nationalism at almost every point at which it showed itself, for the success of the movement meant at best the failure of the Magyar ideal, at the worst the destruction of the Magyar State.

The Hungarian counties in which Slovaks are found in greater or less numbers have of late, for the sake of convenience, been called Slovakia. It should, however, be remembered that there has never at any time been a separate Slovak State, or a group of counties officially known under the name of Slovakia. The 17 counties to which the name of Slovakia is applied contain within their boundaries considerable areas where there are few or no Slovaks, and many districts with mixed population containing German, Polish, or Magyar communities which have existed for many centuries. These non-Slovak elements are important beyond their mere numbers, owing to their culture and efficiency.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) RELIGIOUS

THE majority of the Slovaks are Roman Catholics, but there is a considerable Protestant minority composed almost entirely of Lutherans. Religious freedom exists both in law and in fact.

In 1910 the Roman Catholic Church constituted about 70 per cent. of the population; the Greek Catholics 5 per cent.; the Lutherans—who are well organized both in regard to their schools and churches—23 per cent., and there are also some members of the Reformed Church (Calvinists). The Slovaks and the Wends are almost the only western Slavs among whom Protestants are found.

The Roman Catholic Church, being the one with the greatest number of adherents, is naturally in a strong position.

#### (2) POLITICAL

*Administration.*—The existing political conditions in the districts inhabited by the Slovaks have for some time past been increasingly disturbed. Hungary has for the last twenty years been passing through a political crisis, caused partly by the increasing bitterness of feeling between the various nationalities within its borders, and partly by the attempt of the more extreme Magyar politicians to insist upon the exclusive use of Magyar as the official language in Hungary, and its recognition as the language of command in the joint Austro-Hungarian army. As to the policy of making the language as far as possible understood by all Hungarian citizens, nearly all Magyar politicians have been in agreement. But on the



question of the use of Magyar in the joint army, political parties have been deeply divided. This division became so marked that it led for a time to the complete breakdown of the Hungarian constitutional machinery, and the so-called 'Ex-Lex' situation arose, during which Parliament refused both supplies and the right to raise troops, and no one could be compelled to do his military service or to pay his taxes.

The Government, however, continued to administer the laws and to carry on its work both central and local, and on the whole there was little practical inconvenience or disorder anywhere. It is creditable both to the official classes and to the citizens, of whatever nationality, that the crisis passed off with so little trouble, but these internal struggles have probably served to encourage Nationalist movements.

The Slovaks have no special political privileges such as those enjoyed by the Croats, and they have often hoped that Austria might be induced to interfere on their behalf. Theoretically the Constitution secures to the Slovaks the same rights of self-government as those enjoyed by any other section of Hungarian citizens, and these are very considerable. The franchise is a somewhat restricted and complicated one, but having regard to the character and backward condition of the population in 1867, the Constitution then drawn up was probably as suitable as could have been devised. The great bulk of the peasantry were not—indeed, many of them are not now—sufficiently advanced to make intelligent use of wider powers than they possess under the present Constitution. The Slovak Nationalist party would probably point to the fact that as a result of the interference in elections by the Central Government, the exercise of their political rights is restricted and the election of Slovak deputies discouraged. The number of these has certainly remained small and has varied between 4 in 1901, 1 in 1905, 7 in 1906, and 3 in 1910. These numbers bear no relation to the proportion of Slovaks in the constituencies, though it need not be assumed that Slovak Nationalist candidates

would always be returned, even if the Government did not discourage their election.

The administration, in so far as it is in the hands of the central authorities, has not been unfair; the system of local government, which is carried out by the county assemblies and a certain number of permanent officials, is perhaps more open to criticism, and from the Slovak Nationalist point of view a considerable grievance may be said to exist.

*Social Conditions, Trade, and Industry.*—The mountainous nature of the country and the denseness of its numerous forests have kept the rural population rather isolated. The German towns and the mining population were more or less in touch with the outside world, but the Slovak peasants remained very backward until recent times. They are still chiefly cultivators, herdsman, and woodmen; and, although many of them are also miners and artisans, they usually work for employers of other races. Obligated by poverty to leave their mountains to earn a livelihood abroad, many of them used to tramp through Central Europe, working as pedlars, wire-workers, window-menders, tinkers, and the like. Others emigrated to the more fertile districts of Moravia, Bohemia, or Austria, or to the larger towns.

Since the middle of the nineteenth century the Slovak itinerant traders have gradually diminished in numbers, but there has been a considerable and increasing emigration to the large towns and also to America in search of work. Many who have thus left their country return to it; and the influence of the returning emigrant has made itself increasingly felt in both political and social matters. The Slovak peasant is a very hard worker, thrifty, and full of peasant cunning; he is also accused of a liking for strong drink. Those who are settled in the towns, or have become well-to-do, have shown a tendency to become denationalized and to identify themselves with the ruling race, at any rate in language. The Slovaks have produced, it is claimed, some of the

leading men in the Magyar movement in Hungary, notably Kossuth and Pétöfi, the greatest Magyar orator and poet respectively. This tendency of the more educated and rich to abandon their nationality may be one of the causes of the diminution in the numbers of the Slovak population—if such is the case—which, according to the official statistics, has taken place since the middle of the nineteenth century.<sup>1</sup>

The causes contributing to this fall in the Slovak population include emigration, but the fact that the Gorals, or mountain Poles, who were formerly counted as Slovaks in the official statistics, and number some 20,000, are now no longer included among them must also be borne in mind.

### (3) EDUCATIONAL

The general scheme of public education in Hungary is dealt with more fully elsewhere (see *Hungary*, No. 1 of this series, p. 50). In Slovak districts, as in almost all the other districts where there is a non-Magyar population, the question of the 'language of instruction' in the schools is acute. Before the Hungarian State education had been developed to its present point, the local schools of various denominations provided an education almost as a matter of course in the language prevalent in the particular district or used by the community concerned. There were formerly, therefore, many more schools in which the language of instruction was Slovak than there are now, although the total number of schools in the country has increased considerably. Thus the number of Slovak primary schools is alleged to have fallen from 1,921 in the year 1869 to 440 in the year 1911, and this total to have been still further reduced to 240 in 1912. These 240 schools, it is calculated, educate only some 8 per cent. of the Slovak-speaking school-children.<sup>2</sup>

As regards higher education the situation is even

<sup>1</sup> Niederle, *La Race Slave*, 1911, p. 120. Cf. above, p. 8.

<sup>2</sup> *Annuaire Statistique Hongrois*, xix, 1913.



more unfavourable. Three secondary schools, in which the teaching was in Slovak, were opened in the sixties, but all three, together with the 'Matica' or Slovak Academy, were closed in 1875 at the instance of the Government, on the ground that they spread Pan-Slav ideas. There is no university in which Slovak is the language of instruction. The Slovaks have, therefore, the grievance felt by all small nationalities in a composite State, where the State language is insisted upon as the medium of instruction; the fact, however, that the extreme Nationalists in some parts of Austria and Hungary have used the schools as a means of encouraging separatist and disloyal feeling must be taken into account in deciding whether the policy of hostility shown in closing the Slovak secondary schools was or was not justified.

The position of the Slovaks in educational matters compares unfavourably with that of other nationalities in the Dual Monarchy, especially that of the Poles and the Czechs, and there seem to be grounds for advocating some compromise which would lead to the Slovak children learning both the State language and their own vernacular in the schools; but in recent years such a compromise has commended itself to very few in the Austro-Hungarian Empire except the Czechs, and even these are very unwilling.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

### POPULAR OPINION AND NATIONAL SENTIMENT

This subject has already to some extent been dealt with in connexion with the political and educational aspects of the Slovak question.

It is not easy to judge of popular opinion in Hungary, where its expression among subject races is not encouraged. But it is probable that much dissatisfaction exists among the peasantry, who have a strong national consciousness and a strong desire to avoid denationalization, although they have not so far taken much active



part in politics. There is naturally more expression of nationalist aspirations among the educated Slovaks, including the lawyers and priests, e.g. such men as Dr. Hodža and Father Hlinka.

In the extreme section of the Nationalists the proposal has been put forward for the establishment of a separate Slovak State which would include the whole north-west of Hungary, and would comprise some two to two and a half million inhabitants; and it is this party also which insists upon the differences between the Slovak and Czech languages.

The alternative proposal for the fusion of the Slovak and Czech populations into one political State has, however, rapidly gained ground during the war. The action of the Czecho-Slovak forces alike in Siberia and on the allied front, the recognition by the Allies of the separate existence of this belligerent force, and the British Declaration recognizing the Czecho-Slovaks as an allied nation, all point to the solution of the nationalist problem on the lines of a combined State, in which the north-west of Hungary will be united with Moravia and Bohemia.

The Separatist feeling which formerly existed has undoubtedly been greatly modified by the events of the war, if it has not entirely disappeared; and with goodwill on both sides it should now be possible to arrange for a large measure of local autonomy for the Slovaks in the new Czecho-Slovak State. The incorporation of the Slovaks in another State would deprive Hungary of a region which is rich in timber and minerals and contains some of its best coal-mines.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

## (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

## (a) Roads

NEITHER roads nor railways anywhere in Hungary have kept adequate pace with the rapid industrial development of recent years, and Slovakia is consequently more affected by this state of things than other areas where the industrial progress has been slower.

The administrative district of the left bank of the Danube (*Duna bal partja*) is entirely Slovak, and the administrative district of the right bank of the Tisza (*Tisza jobb partja*) is also largely Slovak, the two non-Slovak counties being Bereg and Borsod, including the municipal area of Miskolcz. Both these administrative districts are among the most highly developed in Hungary from a commercial and manufacturing point of view; and their road communications have received some attention from the authorities.

Communications by road, divided into the usual four classes, viz. State roads, municipal roads, communal public roads (the three most important classes),<sup>1</sup> and communal paths and tracks, were as follows in 1912 in Slovakia and Hungary:

	Slovakia.	Kingdom of Hungary.
	Km.	Km.
State roads . . . . .	2,407	11,775
Municipal roads . . . . .	6,787	37,256
Communal roads . . . . .	7,513	46,067
Roads in connection with railway stations .	126	526
Paths and tracks . . . . .	12,558	75,242
Total . . . . .	29,391	170,866

(omitting  
Croatia-  
Slavonia)  
(omitting  
Croatia-  
Slavonia)

<sup>1</sup> Municipal roads include both town and country roads, where these are maintained by the municipalities: 'communal' roads are usually kept up by unions of communes (rural districts).

In 1912 there were 29.4 km. of high road per 100 square km. in the whole kingdom, and 29.1 km. per 100 square km. in Slovakia, where the road tax for State and municipal roads produced 3,494,700 kr. out of a total for the kingdom of 23,184,200 kr.

(b) *Railways*

Railway communications have not been proportionately developed, though great importance attaches to the Kassa (Kaschau)–Oderberg Railway, which traverses northern Slovakia from east to west and terminates in the eastern corner of Austrian Silesia. By this railway Slovakia is brought into direct communication with Germany. Though the railways have not been so widely extended in Slovakia as in the west and south-west of Hungary, there is nevertheless an important network of lines.

The framework of the system may be described as a rough circle with its centre somewhere between Losoncz and Zólyom (Altsohl) and a considerable but insufficient number of irregular radii, the whole resembling a very incomplete wheel. On the outer circle lie, from west to north and thence east, Pozsony (Pressburg),—connecting with Vienna,—Trencsén (Trentschin), Zsolna (Sil-lein), Poprád, Abos; from Abos the curve turns south through Kassa to Miskolcz, outside Slovakia, and thence west and south to Budapest. At Hatvan, a little east of the Hungarian capital, the circle is joined by the twisted ‘diameter’ line from the north, which leaves the Kassa–Oderberg route at Ruttká and runs south to Zólyom and on with an easterly curve through Fülek and Salgó-Tarján to Hatvan. The main circle is completed on the south-west by the line joining Budapest to Pozsony, which is also the route to Zsolna as far as Galánta. While some parts of the routes mentioned do not fall within the limits of Slovakia it is clear that they are all essential to its economic well-being.

The total length of the railway lines in Slovakia in 1912 was 3,604 km., a somewhat lower figure, in proportion to area and population, than those for

other industrial districts, such as that in the Tisza-Maros angle or those on the right bank of the Danube. Of these lines 1,700 belonged to the State, and the remainder were for the most part worked by the State on behalf of the owners.

The most important railway, the *Kassa-Oderberg line*, which now links up Kassa, Abos, Igló, Poprád, Rózsahegy (Rosenberg), Ruttká, Zsolna, and Csacza with Breslau and Cracow, is in the hands of a private company, and down to 1914 was making steady progress in spite of financial difficulties, which were being gradually overcome. It was, of course, dependent on the goodwill of both Austria and Hungary, which it recently induced to permit an increase in its tariff for the local transport of goods.

The other main sections formed part of the Hungarian State Railways system, and many of the local and communal (or 'vicinal') railways were also directed by the State railways, which encouraged the building of such lines only when they seemed likely to pay interest on the capital invested. The 'vicinal' railways have been built to meet the needs of particular towns or districts, and are considered as second-class railways. According to the law of 1880 they must at the expiry of not more than ninety years from the date of their original concession become the property of the State.

Some of the main sections have short titles of their own. Thus the *Vág Valley Railway* is that which runs north from Galánta through Lipótvár and Trencsén to Zsolna. This route forms a direct connexion between Budapest and Berlin, but is considerably longer than the more easterly route through Ruttká.

The Ruttká-Hatvan section forms by far the longer portion of the *Ruttká-Budapest line*, which traverses the heart of Slovakia, and is of the utmost value to the mining centres at Zólyom, Selmeczbánya (Schemnitz), and Besztercebánya, the last-named lying only a few miles north of this route. A few kilometres south of Ruttká the line passes Turócz-Szentmárton, the



county town of Turócz and the original seat of the Slovak national movement. At Janoshegy, just north of Körmöczbánya (Kremnitz), the line crosses, at a height of 756 metres, the watershed separating the River Garam from the Turócz and the Vág. At Kesterenye it reaches the important Salgó-Tarján coal-basin and also connects with the Mátra local railway to Kál-Kápolna and south-east Hungary. Rather less than half-way between Kis-Terenye and Zólyom it passes through Losonc (the junction for Bánréve and Miskolcz), a town which, with 10,000 inhabitants and numerous factories, is the most important place in the lignite county of Nógrád. Of the branch line Zólyom-Tiszolc, the eastern quarter, from Erdőköz to Tiszolc, is a rack railway. The short branch from Garamberzence to Selmeczbánya is only narrow gauge, although this place of 16,000 inhabitants is the principal mining town in Upper Hungary.

The Hatvan - Miskolcz - Sátoralja-Ujhely section, which serves the famous Tokay (Tokaj) wine-growing district and connects Kassa with the south, forms part of the *Budapest-Lawoczne* (Lemberg) line (435 km. long), which, as a connection with the rest of Europe, rivals the Kassa-Oderberg route in its importance for Slovakia.

The line from Miskolcz to Fülek is known as the *Gömör line*, and that via Sajó-Ecseg to Torna is called the *Boldva Valley line*. The branch from Pelsöcz (Pleischnitz) to Murányalja, which serves numerous iron-works, is known as the *Murány line*, and the *Losonc Local Railway* is that which runs from Losonc to Katalinhuta. The *Bodrogköz Railway* (30 km.), which serves the district of that name in the southern part of county Zemplén, was opened in 1913.

The total amount of capital invested in the railways of Slovakia must considerably exceed £3,000,000.

### (c) Waterways

In respect of water transport Slovakia is not very well provided for. The attention and resources of

the authorities were hitherto directed rather to the Danube and to the Ferencz and Béga Canals, and only insignificant sums were spent from time to time in deepening the northern rivers. The chief rivers in Slovakia are the Bodrog, which joins the Tisza near Tokaj; the Vág (Waag) in the north-west, which enters the Danube above Komorn (Komárom); the Nyitra, which flows from north to south almost parallel with the Vág and joins the Danube not far below it; the Garam, parallel with the Vág, which enters the Danube close to Esztergom, and the Árva, Kiszucza (Kisuca), and Turócz, which flow into the Vág. Particulars relating to these rivers (in 1912) are tabulated below:

<i>River.</i>	<i>Navigable from</i>	<i>Navigable length.</i>	
		<i>For barges and rafts.</i>	<i>For river steamers.</i>
		<i>Km.</i>	<i>Km.</i>
Bodrog .	Zemplén to the Tisza	65·9	65·9
Vág .	Liptóújvár (Hradek) to the Danube	350·6	—
Vág .	Gúta to Komárom	—	29·5
Nyitra .	Naszvad to the Danube	15·1	—
Garam .	Besztercebánya (Neusohl) to the Danube	177·7	—
Árva .	Turdossin to the Vág	52·6	—
Kiszucza .	Trencsénmakó to the Vág	51·4	—
Turócz .	Prékopa Bridge to the Vág	2·0	—
Total . . . . .		715·3	95·4

Thus, only 715·3 km. of the Slovak rivers are navigable, and of this total only 95·4 km. are navigable by steamers. The merchandise and passenger traffic is so relatively unimportant that detailed figures are not given in the official returns.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

The position of labour in Slovakia is much the same as in other parts of Hungary. The agricultural labourer is badly paid, and it is customary at harvest time for bands of Slovaks to seek agricultural work in the plains, where arrangements are regularly made by the farmers to hire them in small parties. Latterly, however, their interest in agrarian Socialism appears

to have caused the authorities some anxiety, and given rise to a desire to restrict their incursions into other districts of Hungary. In the years preceding the war large numbers of Slovaks had begun to emigrate to the United States. From 1903 to 1912 inclusive the total number of Slovak emigrants (most of whom went to America) was returned as 249,122, or about 7 per thousand of the Slovak population per annum; but some of these emigrants were from other parts of Hungary.

Observers have particularly commented upon the poverty of the rural population in the purely Slovak districts of Hungary and upon the superstition and generally backward state of the peasants, who are troubled by a bitter, if vague, feeling of unrest. The wages paid to the agricultural labourer in Slovakia before the war were somewhat lower than those paid in the Alföld and other districts of Hungary. The industrial workers were not so well paid as those in the Budapest area; but their condition seems to have been better than that of the workmen in Transylvania and the Banat, where industrialism has been less scientifically carried out. The following table shows the range of daily wages paid in 1912 in the two chief Slovak mining districts and in those of Budapest and Nagy-Bánya:

<i>District.</i>	<i>Men.</i>		<i>Women.</i>		<i>Children.</i>		
	<i>Highest.</i>	<i>Lowest.</i>	<i>Highest.</i>	<i>Lowest.</i>	<i>Highest.</i>	<i>Lowest.</i>	
Besztercebánya .	5.14	1.86	1.81	1.00	1.40	0.62	} <i>Daily Wages in Kronen.</i>
Igló .	5.04	1.40	1.84	0.60	2.20	0.74	
Budapest .	8.00	2.10	2.00	0.96	1.84	0.80	
Nagy-Bánya .	8.00	1.20	2.00	0.80	1.20	0.60	

In the districts of Oraviczabánya, Zalatna, and Zagreb the highest wages for men were 4.55, 4.87, and 4.85 kr., and the lowest were 2.29, 1.00, and 1.60 kr. respectively.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Methods of Cultivation*

As in Hungary proper, the methods of cultivation vary. The Slovak rural population is poor and illiterate and is not easily induced to take up modern improvements, such as the use of farming machinery and fertilizers. Primitive conditions also prevail among the large farmers in the mountainous districts or in areas not well served by the railways. On the other hand, the more enlightened estate owners have sought to introduce machinery in order to make up as far as possible for the periodical lack of labour.

(b) *Products of Commercial Value*

Slovakia includes a fair proportion of small holdings, and, despite the predominance of industrial interests in the province, the agricultural output is considerable. In an average year the yield per hectare is lower than that of most of the other provinces, and as a rule lower than the general average for Hungary proper.

*Grain and Root Crops.*—In 1913 (a normal year) the chief crop figures for Slovakia and for Hungary proper were as follows :

	<i>Slovakia.</i>		<i>Hungary proper.</i>	
	<i>Total Yield.</i>	<i>Yield per hectare.</i>	<i>Total Yield.</i>	<i>Yield per hectare.</i>
	<i>Quintals.</i>	<i>Quintals.</i>	<i>Quintals.</i>	<i>Quintals.</i>
Wheat . . . . .	4,585,033	12·3	41,190,583	13·2
Rye . . . . .	2,762,406	12·2	13,273,594	12·3
Barley . . . . .	6,188,153	14·5	17,380,254	14·9
Oats . . . . .	2,767,085	10·9	14,487,030	12·4
Maize . . . . .	1,577,477	15·9	46,248,082	18·7
Potatoes . . . . .	18,446,941	71·8	48,752,560	79·6
Beetroot . . . . .	18,243,715	237·0	47,758,377	269·1

The best grain-growing country lies south of latitude  $48\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  N., but barley does well in some of the mountainous districts and oats in Sáros, Szepes (Zips), and Gömör. There is a large potato crop in Bars, Sáros, and Szepes



as well as in the south, and beet comes chiefly from Bars, Nyitra, Pozsony, Trencsén, and Zemplén.

*Wine and Fruit.*—The vineyards are situated for the most part in the county of Zemplén, which includes the famous Hegyalya and Tokaj wine area; but vines are also cultivated to a considerable extent in Abauj-Torna and Ung; and on the left bank of the Danube there are many wine districts, particularly in Esztergom, Nógrád, Nyitra, and Pozsony. The vineyard area in 1913 (an average year) was 22,297 hectares, yielding 146,886 hectolitres of wine, or an average of 6.6 hectolitres per hectare. This production was valued at 7,322,000 kr. Though the Tokay (Tokaj) wines are very valuable, the general yield of the Slovak crop is usually inferior to that of Hungary as a whole: the average yield per hectare for the whole country in 1913 was 11.9 hectolitres, as compared with 6.6 hectolitres in the case of Slovakia. The vineyard area of Slovakia represents not quite 6 per cent. of that of the whole of Hungary. In many places, owing to the ravages of the phylloxera, vineyards have been replaced by orchards, in which fruit is cultivated with success. A large amount of fruit is grown in the neighbourhood of Pozsony.

*Honey.*—The honey produced in Slovakia in 1912 amounted to 5,056 metric quintals. The value of this, together with some 300 metric quintals of wax, was 565,400 kr. This sum represented nearly 19 per cent. of the total production in Hungary proper.

*Tobacco.*—There is a fair amount of tobacco cultivation, Zemplén producing about one-third of the whole crop. The amount fluctuates: that of 1913 was rather below the average. The number of growers had shown a tendency to decline for a few years previously, and the tobacco-growing area in Hungary generally was gradually diminishing. The following table shows the position of this branch of agriculture in two recent years:

	Number of growers.		Tobacco area (hectares).		Product (metric quintals).		Value of raw tobacco (kr.).	
	1909.	1913.	1909.	1913.	1909.	1913.	1909.	1913.
Slovakia . . . . .	188	182	2,426	2,203	34,579	23,813	1,577,055	1,113,902
Hungary (including Croatia-Slavonia)	12,429	9,936	52,095	47,600	654,123	478,982	27,025,578	20,882,260
Slovakia, percentage of totals	1.5	1.8	4.6	4.6	5.3	4.9	5.8	5.3

*Live Stock.*—According to the last census of animals (1911) the animals in Slovakia were as follows :

Horned cattle . . . . .	1,268,152	Sheep . . . . .	1,242,457
Horses . . . . .	281,106	Goats . . . . .	42,430
Donkeys . . . . .	3,088	Pigs . . . . .	829,468
Mules . . . . .	135		

### (c) Forestry

The forest area of Slovakia in 1913 was 2,001,531 hectares, representing 22.4 per cent. of the total forest area of Hungary (including Croatia-Slavonia). The timber is found chiefly in the north, along the Carpathians; and more than half of the wooded districts are under State management (1,174,371 hectares). Of the land devoted to forest cultivation, 491,231 hectares are occupied by oak, 856,726 hectares by the less profitable beech, and 653,574 hectares by the valuable resinous trees. The resinous trees in Slovakia represent 33.6 per cent. of those in the whole of Hungary. Some authorities consider that the forest area of the less fruitful counties could be increased with great advantage.

### (d) Land Tenure

In the Slovak counties land tenure is arranged upon the same basis as in the other parts of Hungary. Less than one per cent. of the holdings exceed 500 joch (about 700 acres) in extent, and about 20 per cent. are of less than 20 joch each. In 1911 there were nearly 15,000 holdings of less than 1 joch (= .57 hectare), the owners of which kept live stock; but on a much larger number of these 'dwarf holdings',

which includes urban allotments, no live stock seems to be kept.

### (3) MINERALS AND METALLURGY

#### (a) *General Remarks*

Slovakia is rich in minerals, especially iron ore and coal. Unfortunately, a precise calculation of the production of the last few years is rendered difficult by the division of Hungary into mining districts, some of which include both Slovak and non-Slovak county areas. Thus the district of Budapest includes not only the production of several non-Slovak counties situated on the right bank of the Danube (e. g. Komorn and Fejér), but also the whole county of Esztergom on the left bank. On the other hand, the returns sometimes include places in different districts under one set of figures. This makes the Hungarian official returns rather misleading. For instance, Slovakia is particularly rich in lignite, and there are also seams of pit-coal, but the official statistics do not include any Slovak county in the pit-coal returns, the entire Slovak production being included in the figures for the mining centre of Budapest. This point should be borne in mind in considering the table of mineral output on p. 43 below.

Apart from coal and iron, Slovakia has large supplies of copper, zinc, and antimony ores, to which must be added over 70 per cent. of the manganese ore mined in Hungary.

With the exception of the county of Esztergom, the Slovak mining centres are included in the Beszterczebánya district on the left bank of the Danube and the Igló district on the right bank of the Tisza. The following figures, summarized from the details tabulated at the end of this section, show the production and value of the more important minerals as returned<sup>1</sup> from these two districts in

<sup>1</sup> i. e. in the *Hungarian Statistical Year-book*, vol. xxi.

1913, and the proportion which the Slovak output then bore to that of Hungary as a whole :

	<i>Production</i> ( <i>Metric tons</i> ).	<i>Percentage.</i>	<i>Value</i> ( <i>Kronen</i> ).	<i>Percentage.</i>
Pig-iron (finery) . . .	177,890	29·2	15,425,000	30·1
Pig-iron (foundry) . . .	9,001	64·3	1,859,000	65·4
Iron ore . . . . .	1,187,828	57·7	11,869,000	65·9
Iron pyrites . . . . .	61,667	67·2	616,000	55·1
Copper ore . . . . .	903	63·0	42,000	37·8
Zinc ore . . . . .	140	34·4	7,000	33·3
Antimony ore . . . . .	6,217	56·4	159,000	29·9
Manganese ore . . . . .	13,563	71·3	145,000	54·3

In addition, Slovakia produced 138 kg. of gold, valued at 452,000 kr., representing 4·7 per cent. of the quantity and value of the gold produced in Hungary; and 2,874 kg. of silver valued at 274,000 kr. (33 per cent. of the quantity and 33·4 per cent. of the value respectively).

Although iron founding has been increasing during the last few years, up to 1913 the Hungarian founders used only about one-half of the iron ore produced in Hungary, the remainder being exported, chiefly to Witkowitz. Measures have been under consideration for making the export of ore more difficult in order to encourage the production of iron goods in Hungary. Of the ore actually dealt with in Hungary, 98 per cent. was used by the larger iron-works—25 per cent. by the State iron-works, 17 per cent. by the Austro-Hungarian Railway, and 56 per cent. by the Rimamurány-Salgótarján Works (see below).

In connexion with the mining industry it should be mentioned that the Czecho-Slovak propagandists are wrong when they allege that Hungary's coal is found exclusively or almost exclusively in Slovakia. In 1913 the total quantity of pit-coal mined in Hungary was 1,319,918 metric tons, valued at 18,387,000 kr. Of this amount more than one-third (445,192 tons, valued at 7,580,000 kr.) came from Transylvania and the Banat. The balance was returned as from the Budapest area, i. e. Budapest and certain portions of Slovakia as well, but comparatively little pit-coal



appears to be won in Slovakia.<sup>1</sup> Again, the lignite produced in Hungary in 1913 amounted to 8,954,133 tons (worth 89,999,000 kr.). Of this, 1,738,320 tons (worth 15,696,000 kr.) came from the Slovak mining district of Beszterczébánya; 4,539,311 tons (44,400,000 kr.) from Transylvania, the Banat, and Croatia-Slavonia.

(b) *Particulars of Chief Enterprises*

Some details of the more important Slovakian mining enterprises may be given here. It will be convenient to group them under the three mining divisions chiefly concerned:

(i) *Beszterczébánya District* (left bank of the Danube).—*Iron, Steel and Lignite.* The principal undertaking is that of (a) the Rimamurány-Salgótarján Iron Works Company, which is registered at Budapest with a capital of 40,000,000 kr., and has mines and works in this and several other mining divisions. In this district it includes the Salgó lignite mine (county Nógrád) with an output in 1913 of 117,000 metric tons, and the Salgótarján Steel Works (county Nógrád). At the latter works the rolling mills can produce 50,000 metric tons of finished goods a year, the axle and instrument factory 3,000 tons, the iron foundry 2,600 tons, the steel foundry 2,000 tons, the wire and nails factory 25,000 tons, the cold rolling plant 3,000 tons, the galvanized iron works 1,000 tons; 2,600 tons of ploughs, shovels, &c., are also produced. The coal and iron mines of this company lie mainly in the Igló district.

Under the same general direction is (b) the 'Union' Royal and Imperial Iron and Sheet Metal Manufacturing Company, which is registered at Vienna, but directed from Budapest. It has a lignite mine at Erdőbadony in county Zólyom, producing 10,000 tons per annum, and, in the town of Zólyom, a rolling mill

<sup>1</sup> One authority stated (in 1900) that the Salgótarján Coal Mining Company was at that time producing a million tons of *pit-coal* annually, but this appears to be a slip for *brown coal* (lignite); the writer may have been misled by the company's name.

employing 815 workmen and turning out 280,000 sheets of metal a year.

Zólyom-Brézó, in the county of Zólyom, is the headquarters of (c) the highly important Royal Hungarian Iron and Steel Works, which have the advantage of being close to the River Garam and working largely with water-power, as well as with steam and electricity. These works have a very complete installation of machinery, twenty-one generators using pit-coal, forty-three furnaces of various types, and fifteen plants for rolling plates and making tubes. The output in 1913 amounted to 15,360 truckloads of ingots, castings, billets, tubes, &c. There were 2,664 employees in 1913; and this colony of work-people had a special Roman Catholic Church, a State elementary school, and a continuation school for the young people of fourteen to eighteen years of age.<sup>1</sup> At Henrik-telep, 2.5 km. from Zólyom-Brézó, there is a separate welding works, with 67 machines, 3 furnaces, and 355 employees. Its output in 1913 was 10,000 tons of metal tubes, &c., welded by water-gas.

*Lignite* is obtained chiefly in county Nógrád, which includes mines at the following places among others:

Place.	Output (metric tons) in 1913.	Value (Kronen).
Fülekpilis (Romhány) . . . . .	4,356	43,560
Kozsd . . . . .	3,800	38,000
Baglyasalja, Karancsalja, Etes (N. Hungarian United Coal Mining Company) . . . . .	190,873	—
Mátraszele, &c. (N. Hungarian United Coal Mining Company) . . . . .	192,170	—
Salgó-Tarján (Salgó-Tarján Pit Coal Company), &c. . . . .	1,149,695	9,771,408
Salgó-Tarján (Salgó Lignite Mine) . . . . .	117,000	—
Totals (so far as ascertainable). . . . .	1,657,894	16,000,000

<sup>1</sup> Mention may here be made of the *Bruderdaden*, a special form of sick benefit or insurance clubs, which grew up among the miners of North Hungary as far back as the beginning of the sixteenth century, and in the nineteenth were not only recognized, but enjoined by State law. In the Selmezt district each workman pays 6 per cent. of his wages to the club and his employer contributes a like amount for him. The *Bruderdade* for the Rimamurány-Salgó-Tarján Company's people had 11,119 members in 1912; its capital at the end of 1913 was 3,048,907 kr., its expenses in 1912 were 630,050 kr., and its credit balance 156,162 kr.

Of the other lignite mines in Bezstercebánya the following deserve mention: those at Garam-Kövesd (county Hont) and elsewhere, belonging to the domains of the Archduke Josef in Kisjenő and over 10,800,000 square metres in extent; and those at Nyitrabánya (county Nyitra), which have 11,100 km. of rail below ground, produced in 1913 96,000 metric tons, and employed more than 1,000 hands. The latter mines were worked by a Budapest firm, but formed part of the estate of the late Count János Pálffy of Pozsony. A number of lignite mines of considerable extent were either not worked or made no returns in 1913.

The deposit of lignite in the upper Nyitra basin is said to be of inferior quality, but the amount of reserves is estimated at some 42,000,000 tons.

*Non-ferrous Metals.*—Gold and silver ore mines are worked in the county of Bars, where the 1913 output of (a) the Royal Hungarian Mines was valued at 132,152 kr. for the Vihnye-Peszerény properties, while those at Körmöczbánya and Jánoshegy produced 108,473 kr. worth of precious metals (31.1 kg. of refined gold, 130.8 kg. free gold ore, and 67.574 kg. of refined silver)

Of considerable importance are (b) the Royal Hungarian Metal Extracting Works of Selmeczbánya, which produced in 1913 the following quantities of metals:<sup>1</sup>

		<i>Value in Kronen.</i>
Gold	222 kg.	729,126
Silver	4,267 kg.	383,935
Tin solder	889 kg.	2,960
Copper	287 qtls.	43,000
Soft lead	8,812 qtls.	447,000
Litharge	1,553 qtls.	79,000

Selmeczbánya has been for centuries the centre of royal Hungarian mining enterprise, and still formed in 1914 (c) a special Royal Hungarian Mining Directorate which included the Royal Hungarian Mine Offices

<sup>1</sup> The figures are taken from the *Hungarian Mines Handbook* for 1914; it would appear that these works deal with ore from both Slovak and non-Slovak districts.

of Hodrusbánya, Selmezbánya, Körmöczbánya, Aranyidka, Opalbánya, and Magurka, the Royal Foundry Offices at Selmezbánya, the Royal Copper Works at Besztercebánya, and the Royal Hungarian Mining School at Selmezbánya. The following figures were published in 1900 for the output of this whole region (i) in the 100 years from 1790 to 1889, and (ii) in the year 1896 :

(i) 1790–1889 :		<i>Gulden.</i>
14,110 kg. gold, worth	.	23,150,000
656,508 kg. silver, worth	.	59,080,000
55,607 tons lead, worth	.	8,620,000
315 tons copper, worth	.	150,000
Total value	.	91,000,000
(ii) in 1896 :		<i>Gulden.</i>
200·7 kg. gold, worth	.	329,148
4,578·9 kg. silver, worth	.	332,166
716·42 tons lead, worth	.	107,464
24·01 tons copper, worth	.	11,284
Total value <sup>1</sup>	.	780,062

The Selmezbánya Directorate also has charge of the Royal Hungarian Mines at the royal free town of Selmech-és-Bélabánya, about 5 km. to the north-east, which are also of some importance and employ over 1,000 workpeople. Their output in 1913 was approximately as follows :

Gold	.	81·06 kg.
Silver	.	1,682·09 kg.
Copper	.	19·25 kg.
Lead	.	154·12 kg.
Agalmatolite	.	107·30 metric tons
Total value	.	546,646 kronen

<sup>1</sup> It appears from these figures that the average yearly output for the whole period 1790–1889 was considerably less than that of 1896, except in the case of silver, but that the monetary value of the total yearly output had fallen off in a marked degree. This decline was itself due to the decrease in the price and consequently in the output of silver : the kilogram, which in the seventies of last century was still worth 90 gulden, brought less than 50 as long ago as the year 1900.



*Gold* and *antimony* ore are mined together with iron in several parts of the counties of Zólyom and Liptó, and *antimony* ore alone in the counties of Pozsony and Liptó; some *silver* is mined in the latter county. There is an antimony works at Fejérkö, with a capital (in 1913) of 32,219 kr.

Parts of the counties of Pozsony and Zólyom also produce some *copper*. (d) The Royal Hungarian Copper Works of Beszterczebánya (county Zólyom) produced in 1913 58·3 tons of electrolytic copper, 10·6 tons of hammered copper wares, and 10 tons of copper sulphate, the total value being 129,337 kr.

(e) The Royal Mint at the ancient 'free and chief mining town' of Körmöczbánya, a little north-west of Zólyom, is also within the Beszterczebánya district. In the year 1913 this mint, which is the only one in Hungary, stamped gold, silver, nickel, and bronze coins worth, in all, 13,800,944 kr., including 320,435 gold pieces of 20 kr. and 137,443 gold pieces of 10 kr. It also minted large quantities of Serbian and Bulgarian silver and bronze coins. The output of metals, &c., at the Körmöczbánya mint was in 1913 returned as 32·9 quintals of gold, worth 10,811,536 kr., 146·5 quintals of silver, worth 1,319,337 kr., and 196 quintals of copper sulphate, worth 14,308 kr. The mint was directly under the control of the Royal Hungarian Ministry of Finance.

(ii) *Igló District* (right bank of the Tisza).—*Iron, Steel, &c.*—This, the chief mining district of Slovakia, is noted for its output of *iron ores*. There is a large number of small undertakings for which no returns are printed; a considerable proportion have either ceased working in recent years or were only beginning work in 1913, the year to which the following returns generally refer. It should be noted that in a few cases the possible, not the actual output, is given in the returns; this applies particularly to the furnaces, foundries, and mills. The chief properties are noted in the following list:

(a) Property of the Rimamurány-Salgó-Tarján Iron

Works Company, or property leased to this company:

Iron ore and ironstone mines at Luczia (county Abauj-Torna) and at the following places in county Gömör: Vashegy, Rakos, Rozsnyó, Sebespatak, Alsósajó, Oláhpatak-Felsősajó, Krasza-Horka, Andrassy, Dernő, &c. The total output in 1913 amounted to some 456,150 tons of iron ore of various types.

Furnaces and foundries at Dernő, Likér, and Nyustya, with an output of about 48,000 tons of pig-iron and cast iron. The Dernő works belong to the Andrassy estate.

Limestone quarries at Gombaszög and Tiszolze, with a total output of 192,000 tons in 1913.

Magnesite pits at Ratkó; output of roasted magnesite in 1913, 3,500 tons.

(b) Mines, furnaces, foundries, &c., owned by the Hernád Valley Hungarian Iron Industry Company (under the general directorate of the Rimamurány-Salgó-Tarján Company):

*Output in Metric Tons, 1913.*

Szalánk Mines (county Szepes); iron ore . . . . .	90,000
Korompa-Klippberg Iron Ore Mine (county Szepes); iron ore . . . . .	7,200
Katharina Gallery Mine, Pracfalu (county Szepes); ironstone and 80 tons copper ore . . . . .	7,300
Nagysolymár Mine (county Szepes); iron ore . . . . .	2,300
And numerous other pits and rights in Árva, Szepes, Zólyom, &c. . . . .	—
Total (iron ores) . . . . .	106,800

*Furnaces, Foundries, and Mills.*

Szalánk Separating Plant (county Szepes); 130 tons roasted ore and 1.2 tons cement copper in 12 hours . . . . .	—
Korompa Furnaces and Mills (county Szepes); production:	
Martin pig iron . . . . .	82,000
100 tons leached or 120 tons agglomerated ore per diem . . . . .	—
Black copper, 5 tons, refined copper, 4 tons per diem . . . . .	—

Korompa Refining and Rolling Mills, production:

Martin steel . . . . .	150,000
Rolled steel about 140 tons, intermediate and fine elongated steel about 150 tons, in 12 hours . . . . .	—

The Korompa Works employ over 2,000 workers, for whom there are 462 dwelling-houses, a special post office, school, &c. The *Bruderlade* (see above, p. 35, foot-note) had assets in 1913 to the value of 1,556,600 kr. In all there are more than 3,000 persons in the employ of the Hernád Valley Company, which had a capital in 1900 of about 20,000,000 kr. and has, since that date, increased its yearly output of ore by over 100 per cent. and of worked iron and steel by over 400 per cent. Its steam-engines had an aggregate of 12,000 horse-power twenty years ago, and in 1913 it had nearly 100 km. of railway of various types above and below ground.

(c) Property of Upper Silesian and Viennese companies, and Royal Hungarian Mines: The more important mines are at Gölniczbánya, Markusfalu, Igló, Merény, and Rozsnyó (Rosenau); the combined output is over 280,000 tons of iron ore. There are several smaller companies, one of which works the estate of Duke Philipp of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

*Non-ferrous Metals and Minerals.*—The principal other minerals mined in the Igló district are indicated in the list of the mineral products of Slovakia given below (p. 43). The chief mines at work in 1913 were at Rozsnyó (*antimony*, 1,546.9 tons output; owned by A. Odendall, Vienna); Aranyidka, county Abauj-Torna (Royal Hungarian Mines; *silver* output worth 21,565 kr.); Szepesjánosfalu and Landzsasötfalu, county Szepes (*manganese ore*, output 6,504 and 7,060 tons respectively); Pelsöcz (Pleischnitz)-Ardó, county Gömör (*lead and zinc ore*, 320 tons, worth 16,000 kr.; owned by a Breslau firm); Dobsina (Dobschau), where a *copper pyrites* mine was preparing to begin work on a considerable scale; and Szomolnok (Schmölnitz) and Szomolnokhuta, county Szepes, where the Ober-

ungarische Berg- und Hüttenwerke A/G of Budapest produced (in 1912) 61,666 tons of *pyrites* and 53.65 tons of *cement copper*—both valued at 10 kr. a ton—and employed 367 workpeople.

The Royal Hungarian Salt-boiling Works at Sívár (county Sáros) were of distinct local importance, but the salt obtained in this way is not as valuable as rock-salt, and is not exported; the output in 1913 of 5,913.5 tons was, however, worth 1,180,939 kr. There is no recent return for the Dubnicz (Vörösvágás) opals, which in the past made the hill country of county Sáros famous; and most of the copper mines, including the Phönix-Hutta, seem to have shut down, probably mainly in consequence of American competition. The county of Sáros is particularly rich in mineral waters and possesses over 100 springs, of which those at Bartfá and the Salvator water of Szinyelipócz are well known. This county also produces good millstones and building material.

Mining and prospecting for mineral oils seems hitherto to have met with little success, but it may be recorded that there was already one English company at work in county Zemplén in 1913, under the title of the Hungarian (Zemplén) Oil Company, Ltd. (Pannonia-telep, Izbugyaradvány, and London). This company employed seventeen people, but does not seem to have got beyond the prospecting stage.

Four fairly large firms are engaged in magnesite mining in the Igló district, viz. (a) the Magnesite Industry Company, Ltd., which has a branch at Jolsva, and is registered at Budapest with a capital of 3,200,000 kr.; (b) the General Magnesite Company, Ltd., offices in Budapest, share capital 1,400,000 kr., works at Hisnyóvíz (Gömör); (c) the German-Hungarian Magnesite Company, Kassa and Budapest, share capital 1,500,000 kr.; and (d) the Gömör Amalgamated Magnesite Company, Budapest, share capital 2,000,000 kr. No returns for the output of these companies appear in the *Hungarian Mines Handbook* for 1914.

(iii) *Budapest District*.—The only part of this district



which falls within the boundaries of Slovakia is the county of Esztergom, which produces a *red marble* that is in great demand in Hungary. The *lignite* mines of the hilly region south of the Danube and south-west of the town of Esztergom are of some value, and the principal undertakings are the following :

(a) At Dorog, Csolnok, and Sárísáp is a mine owned by the Esztergom-Szásvár Lignite Company, which in 1913 employed 1,726 workpeople and produced 411,600 tons of lignite. This company is registered at Budapest.

(b) Another mine at Dorog, owned by the Esztergom Cathedral Chapter, employed 266 workpeople and produced 27,390 tons in 1913.

(c) A mine at Tokod, owned by the Esztergom Seminary, employed 362 persons and produced 72,703 tons in 1913.

(d) Another mine at Tokod, owned by the Esztergom vidéki Köszénbánya Joint Stock Company of Budapest, which was not working in 1913, has an extent of 1,447,941 square metres. Its buildings include 48 workmen's dwellings and a school.

The following table shows the mineral output of the Beszterczebánya and Igló districts compared with that of Hungary as a whole :

## MINERAL OUTPUT OF SLOVAKIA AND HUNGARY (1913).

(The figures are taken from the *Hungarian Statistical Year-book*.)

	<i>Beszercebiánya.</i>		<i>Igló.</i>		<i>Hungary.</i>		<i>Slovakia's</i>	
	<i>Metric</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>Metric</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>Metric</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>percentage of</i>	
	<i>tons.</i>	<i>(1000 kr.).</i>	<i>tons.</i>	<i>(1000 kr.).</i>	<i>tons.</i>	<i>(1000 kr.).</i>	<i>Hungarian output.</i>	
Gold . . . . .	0.1	452	—	—	2.9	9,586	4.7	4.7
Silver . . . . .	2.7	264	—	—	8.6	820	33.0	33.4
Finery pig-iron . . . . .	—	—	177,800	15,425	608,966	51,117	29.2	30.1
Foundry pig-iron . . . . .	—	—	9,001	1,859	13,986	2,839	64.3	65.4
Iron ore . . . . .	270	1	1,187,558	11,868	2,039,075	17,991	57.7	65.9
Iron pyrites . . . . .	—	—	61,667	616	106,629	1,118	67.2	55.1
Gold and silver ores, and copper and lead ores containing gold and silver (high grade ores) .	783	206	—	—	73,648	5,001	1.1	4.1
Similar ores of lower grade con- taining gold and silver .	49,718	515	204	22	443,380	6,746	11.2	7.9
Copper ore <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	—	—	903	42	1,433	111	63.0	37.8
Zinc ore <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	—	—	140	7	407	21	34.4	33.3
Antimony ore <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	28.4	4	6,189	155	11,017	531	56.4	29.9
Manganese ore . . . . .	—	—	13,563	145	19,005	267	71.3	54.3
Lignite . . . . .	1,783,820	15,696	Esztergom County 511,693	5,000	8,954,133	89,999	25.6	22.9

<sup>1</sup> These ores are of much lower grade than similar ores at present mined in the United Kingdom.

#### (4) MANUFACTURES

Slovakia, like the adjacent districts of Moravia and Bohemia, which are mainly inhabited by the same race, is an important manufacturing district. The manufacturing industries include textiles, electro-technical goods, sugar, machinery and metals, cabinet-making and timber products, leather, chemicals, and mineral oils. Statistics for individual Slovak industries are not generally available, but the extent of the progress achieved may be judged from the capital amounts invested in the chief industries, and from the growth of the towns, as shown in the lists below. In addition, there are firms engaged in distilling and brewing, salt-boiling, cement-making, the manufacture of bricks and tiles, asbestos, glass, and paper, and in flour-milling. The flour-mill at Nagy-Sáros (near Eperjes) had attained something like a European reputation by the year 1900, when it was dealing with about 28,000 tons of grain a year, and sending flour to Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and even to North Germany.

It should be remarked that the State, through the banks,<sup>1</sup> is interested indirectly in most of these industries by reason of the somewhat elastic credit system with which Hungarian industry has been built up; and in practically every case the bank directorates include men whose names are unmistakably German or German-Austrian.

<sup>1</sup> The chief banking centres are Pozsony, Kassa, Besztercebánya, Losonez, and Esztergom; and there are Chambers of Commerce at the first three places; that at Pozsony includes Nyitra, Trencsén, and Turócz.

PRINCIPAL MANUFACTURES, CHIEF CENTRES, AND TOTAL  
CAPITAL INVESTED

	<i>Kronen.</i>
<i>Textiles.</i> —At Rózsahegy, Pozsony, Besztercebánya, Czacza, Gács, Késmárk, Kassa, Kiszuczaj-Ujhely, Rajecz, Selmezbánya, Vác, and Zsolna	41,133,000
<i>Electro-technical Industries.</i> —At Pozsony, Eperjes, Igló, Losonc, Salgó-Tarján, Sátoralja-Ujhely, Szerencs, Ungvár, and Zsolna.	5,902,600
<i>Machinery and Metals.</i> —At Salgó-Tarján, Losonc, Pozsony, and Trencsén. (See also the section on <i>Minerals and Metallurgy</i> , p. 32 above)	4,325,000
<i>Wood and Timber.</i> —At Gyetva, Kassa, Pelsőcz, Trencsén, Turóc-St. Marton, and Ung	2,005,000
<i>Leather.</i> —At Liptó-St. Miklos, Nagy-Bossány, and Pozsony	2,400,000
<i>Chemicals.</i> —At Liptó-St. Miklos, Zsolna, Besztercebánya, Trencsén, Privigye (Priwitz), and Tokaj	12,800,000
<i>Mineral Oils, &amp;c.</i> —Pozsony, Bodrog-Keresztúr, Késmárk, Sátoralja-Ujhely, and Zsolna	1,400,000
<i>Sugar.</i> —At Diószeg, Hölak, Oroszka, and Selyp	10,800

The following statistics showing the growth of the town population may be considered as a roughly accurate test of commercial and industrial progress:

TABLE SHOWING THE POPULATION OF 16 SLOVAK TOWNS  
IN 1890, 1900, AND 1910

<i>Names of Towns.</i>	<i>Population in the Year</i>			<i>Percentage of increase or decrease over 1890.</i>
	1890.	1900.	1910.	
<b>Large towns:</b>				
Kassa . . .	32,165	40,102	44,211	37·5
Pozsony . . .	56,048	65,867	78,223	39·6
<b>Smaller towns:</b>				
Besztercebánya	7,958	9,264	10,776	35·4
Eperjes . . .	11,330	14,447	16,323	44·1
Esztergom . . .	—	—	18,000	—
Gölniczbánya . . .	3,917	4,093	3,833	2·1
Igló . . . . .	7,733	9,301	10,525	36·1
Losonc . . . . .	8,221	9,530	12,939	57·4
Nyitra . . . . .	13,784	15,169	16,419	19·1
Rozsnyó . . . . .	4,816	5,198	6,565	36·3
Selmecz . . . . .	15,280	16,375	15,185	0·6
Trencsén . . . . .	6,075	7,011	7,805	28·5
Ungvár . . . . .	13,344	14,723	16,919	26·8
Vác . . . . .	—	—	19,000	—
Zólyom . . . . .	5,129	7,173	8,799	72·3
Zsolna . . . . .	4,124	5,633	9,179	122·6
Slovakia (16 towns)	189,924	223,886	257,701	35·6



## (C) GENERAL REMARKS

In considering the present condition and the future possibilities of Slovakia it must be borne in mind that the modern development of Hungary as a whole only began some fifty years ago, and the whole country is still in an early stage of its economic growth. Nor can one overlook the fact that the Slovak people have been in the position of aliens, living and working under a Government to which they have long been passively, and of late actively, hostile. Thus, on the one hand, the data for forecasting the future from the past are somewhat meagre in Hungary as a whole; and, on the other, there may easily be latent economic forces in Slovakia which remain to be developed in happier political conditions.

It is even somewhat difficult as yet to form an accurate judgement of the character of the Slovaks themselves. One authority writes of the cleanly and well-to-do air of their villages, in which there is little of any sign of misery or want, but admits that the peasant proprietors have fewer possessions than the Magyars of the same class, and that there is too large a proportion who have no share, or only an infinitesimal share, in the land. Another, apparently not ill-disposed, declares that 'the imprint of poverty lies heavily upon them', and is impressed with the slowness, want of initiative, passivity, and intemperance of the people, and the pooriness of their soil. But this tendency to fatalism is redeemed by a certain mysticism of temperament and outlook; and it is recognized that 'slow people, such as these, when once set moving, are most difficult to restrain', and that with a love of colour and beauty, and perhaps of pleasure in general, they combine great physical strength and marked tenacity of purpose. The readiness of the men to emigrate in search of wealth does not seem to argue lack of enterprise in the individual; while the women have gained a high reputation alike for their skill in

fine and exacting work such as embroidery and lace-making, and for the steadfastness with which they maintain the old life at home, while the men are seeking fortune in new lands.

It seems reasonable to expect that the future progress of the country will be satisfactory, if not remarkably rapid. As it is, the urban centres, though for the most part small, have more than kept pace with the rest of Hungary; and some successful experiments in agriculture, notably in the growing of potatoes, have been made in the more suitable counties, such as Bars, Nyitra, and Szepes, while the fertility of Pozsony and Zemplén is well above the average. Railway communications are already tolerable and freights not too high; but it is clear that a number of railheads could still be joined up at comparatively small expense, either by extending the system of light railways or, in the hillier country, by the use of automobiles. The two most important towns, Pozsony and Kassa, have hitherto been dominated by Germans, Jews, and Magyars. But in both the Slovak population has been a considerable element; and it is only too certain that the loss of either of these places, and particularly of Pozsony, the only port on the Danube and the chief gateway to the south-west, would very seriously cripple the economic life of Slovakia.

It seems equally clear that the country stands in great need of foreign capital and of a continuance of such enlightened guidance in technical and agricultural affairs as it appears to have received of late years from the Hungarian Government. The wealth of the country lies mainly in its minerals and notably in its iron deposits, which, it is claimed, are not likely to be exhausted for centuries. Yet the output of iron ore and of pig-iron compares very unfavourably with that of the British Isles. It is again difficult to believe that mineral oil, in workable quantities, will not soon be found in the mining districts. As the American Consul-General at Budapest recently pointed out, the geological surveys hitherto made in Hungary have

probably failed to reveal all the ore-bearing districts; and, on the other hand, the iron and steel industry has been hindered by lack of transport facilities, and by the fact that iron ore, coal, and limestone are not found together in any one centre.

Closely connected with the question of the mines is that of the fuller development of water-power, particularly for the production of electricity. A Magyar authority some years ago wrote with regret of the 'immeasurable driving-power with which the streams and mountain brooks of the county of Liptó could supply industry', and added that, in spite of this, the factories were few and small, 'because of the absence of enterprise and capital'. These statements apply to more than one Slovak county, and the Magyar Government has, it appears, at length become aware of the possibilities which have been so long neglected. A writer in the *Magyarország* has been recently quoted as pointing to the Slovak highlands as the future seat of Hungarian industry, 'as there are to be found water-power, coal and iron fields; it is there that factories are going to be built; that is going to be the field of industry; that is going to be a New America'.

It seems certain that here in Slovakia, in spite of obvious difficulties, there is a great field for the enlightened use of capital; and if it does not come from one country it will be supplied by another. Not only the mines, but the forests and the stock-raising industry of the country, afford opportunities for investment or loan; and these are matters which the Government of the country will almost of necessity take up in the near future. The same may perhaps be foretold of the textile industry, while in the magnificent scenery of the Tatra there is clearly a splendid field for the development of the hotel business, for the Western tourist and sport-lover will not remain much longer content to leave the Carpathians on one side.

It may perhaps not be out of place to recall the fact that it was at Pozsony, immediately after an expedition to the Carpathians, that a member of the

Eighty Club deputation to Hungary in 1906 publicly declared that 'during the visit the deputation had been much impressed with the fresh fields of enterprise which presented themselves to British capitalists in the exploitation of the mineral treasures and natural wealth of the country'.



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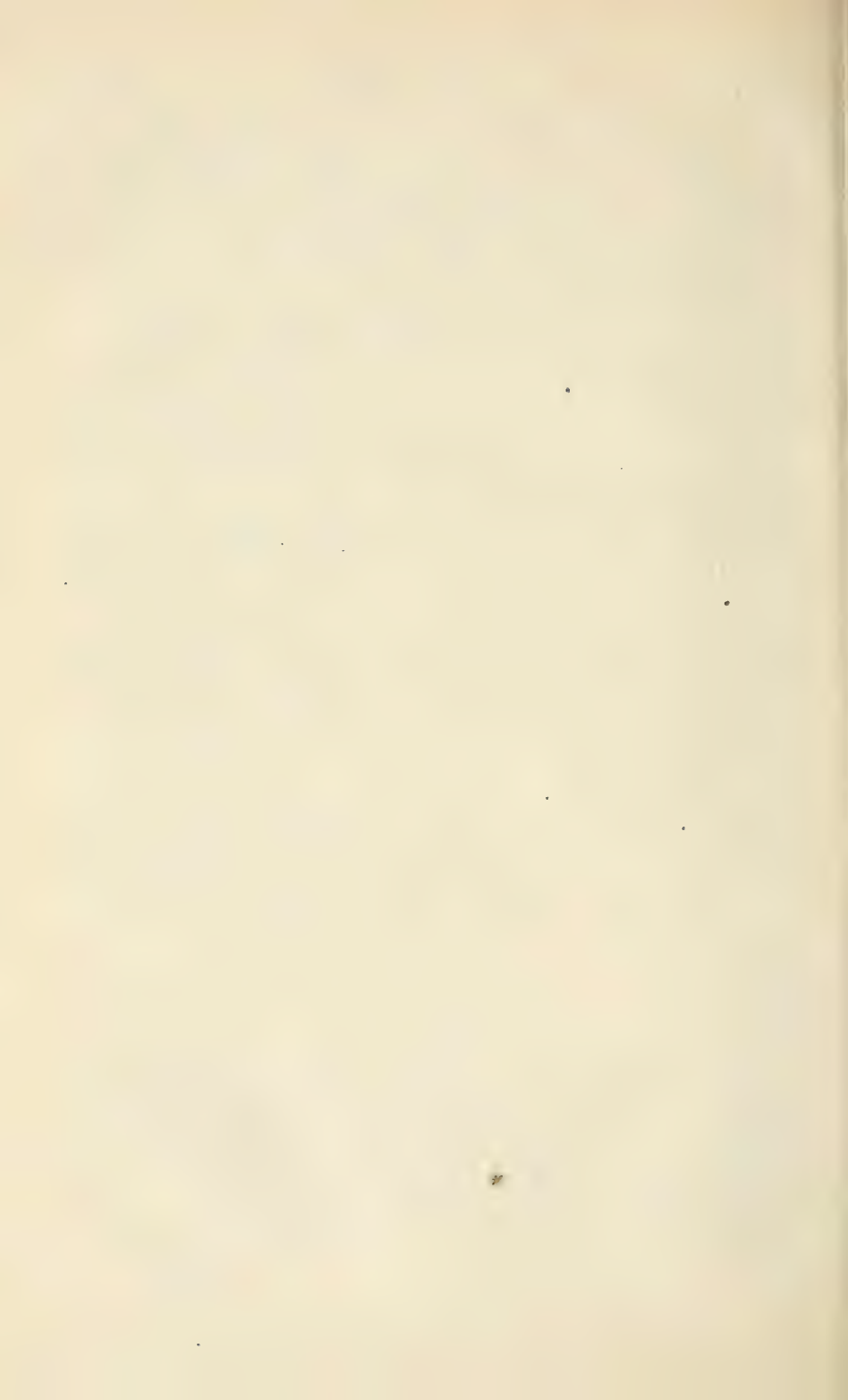
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- See also Authorities in *Bohemia and Moravia*, No. 2 in this series.

## MAPS

Slovakia is covered by four sheets (M. 33 Wien, M. 34 Krakau, L. 33 Triest, L. 34 Buda-Pest; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' Map, published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000. See also special map 'Hungary and Croatia-Slavonia : internal divisions,' issued by the War Office (G.S.G.S. 2917) in connexion with this series.

For Ethnography, see note on maps in *Austria* (No. 1 of this series), p. 28.



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# I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

## (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE Duchy of Austrian Silesia comprises the two Silesian districts of Troppau (Opawa) and Teschen (Cieszyn), which remained under Austrian sovereignty after the conquest of Silesia by Frederick the Great of Prussia in 1742. The two districts are separated by a wedge-shaped northward projection of Moravia, which lies between the Oder and the Ostrawitza. The Troppau district is known as Upper or Western Silesia, the Teschen district as Lower or Eastern Silesia. The two together, with an area of 2,026 square miles, form the smallest of the Crownlands of the Austrian Empire, and lie between  $49^{\circ} 25'$  and  $50^{\circ} 30'$  north latitude, and between  $16^{\circ} 50'$  and  $19^{\circ} 5'$  east longitude.

Both districts march on their northern side with Prussian Silesia. The boundary, from a point  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles due west of Freiwaldau, runs first north-west along the Reichenstein ridge of the Sudetes, and then in a south-easterly direction as far as the Oder, making on the way a pronounced salient of some twelve miles south of Neustadt (representing the former Moravian enclave of Hotzenplotz), and from Jägerndorf onwards following the course of the Oppa, except where it includes an enlarged bridge-head opposite Troppau. East of the Oder and the Moravian wedge, the boundary follows for the most part the line of the Olsa and the Vistula (Weichsel).

On the southern side the Troppau district is bounded by Moravia, the frontier being very irregular and largely artificial, though it follows in parts the Altvater range, the upper Mohra, and the Oder. The Teschen



district is bounded on the west by Moravia, the division being the Ostrawitza; on the south by Hungary (Slovakia), where the boundary follows the Jablunka ridge of the West Beskid range; and on the east by Galicia, the division being the course of the Biała in the north, and farther south the Barania spur of the Beskids.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

In both districts of the Duchy the surface slopes downwards from the southern or south-western mountain-ridges towards the north or north-east, and the ridges send out spurs at right angles to the line of their main direction. Communications between east and west are consequently easy only for routes close to the northern edge of the Duchy, where they follow the river-courses of the Oppa, Olsa, or Vistula. Routes running north and south follow the river valleys and end in passes, which are at a high level in the north-western parts of the Troppau district, where they have to cross the High Gesenke; and also in the Teschen district, where the only considerable pass is the Jablunka. In the eastern half of the Troppau district the surface takes the form of a plateau, and presents fewer hindrances to communications. In general, communications with Prussian Silesia are easy, while contact with the rest of Austria-Hungary is rendered difficult by the mountain ranges, except in the central part of the Duchy. In the Troppau district the north-western area and the High Gesenke are purely mountain regions, and consist of rugged peaks and forest-covered valleys. The main mountain ridge follows the western frontier, the chief peaks, from west to east, being the Fichtloch (3,637 ft.), the Hirschbadkamm (3,253 ft.), and the Altvater (4,887 ft.).

A strip of country running north and south on the line Zuckmantel-Würbenthal-Engelsberg separates the High Gesenke from the Bennisch and Hrabín-Wigstadt plateau. These plateaux consist of gently undulating

country of moderate fertility, intersected by river valleys of considerable depth, and their northern and eastern edges drop steeply for some 150 ft. to the level of the Oppa and Oder valleys. The Oppa valley is the district most favourable to agriculture, and sugar-beet is extensively grown there. The Kuhländchen, i.e. the country stretching along the left bank of the Oder, is famed for the breed of cattle which bears its name.

The Teschen district is more uniform in character. South of a line running east and west through Friedek, Teschen, and Bielitz (Bielsko), the country consists of the northern slopes of the West Beskids, which are known in this section as the Jablunka Mountains. The soil is mostly poor. Forest alternates with mountain pastures, known locally as the Salasch, and with the deep valleys of torrential streams. The chief mountain peaks are those of the Lyssa Hora (4,346 ft.), in the west, and, in succession from west to east, the Jaworowy (3,385 ft.), the Great and Little Pohlom (3,470 and 3,497 ft.), the Czantory (3,264 ft.), and the Barania group in the east (3,982 ft.).

North of the Friedek-Teschen-Bielitz line the country is an undulating plain sloping downwards towards the Prussian frontier. The soil here is mostly a heavy non-porous clay, which adds to the difficulties of agriculture in a damp and cold climate.

### *River System*

The rivers of the Duchy, which are mainly tributaries of the Oder or Vistula, rise as mountain torrents on its southern and south-western borders, and flow north or north-east.

The Oder rises in Moravia, flows through the south-eastern corner of the Troppau district, and along its eastern border to the Prussian frontier. It is here joined by the Oppa, whose chief tributaries are the Gold Oppa, which flows from the north-west to join it at Jägerndorf, and the Mohra, which flows from the south to join it just below Troppau.

In the Teschen district the chief rivers are the Ostrawitza and the Olsa, which join the Oder at Ostrau and at Oderberg respectively ; the Vistula, which rises in the Barania range, flows north to the Prussian frontier at Schwarzwasser, and then eastwards to the Galician border ; and the Biata, which joins the Vistula ten miles north of Bielitz.

None of the rivers of the Duchy are navigable except for small local boats.

### (3) CLIMATE

The position of the Duchy on the northern flanks of the Sudetes and Beskids gives it a cold wet climate which is more favourable to forest than to agriculture. The mean annual rainfall varies between 23 and 27 inches (600 and 700 mm.) in the districts of Troppau and Wagstadt, between 27 and 31 inches (700 and 800 mm.) in the northern part of Eastern Silesia, and between 31 and 47 inches (800–1,200 mm.) in the mountain districts, being over 47 inches (1,200 mm.) on the Altvater.

The mean annual temperature is between 46° and 48° F. (8° and 9° C.), except in the central district on either side of the Moravian wedge, where it is above 48° F. (9° C.). The mean annual range of temperature in Eastern Silesia is 36° F. (20° C.).

The prevalent winds are west, and especially north-west. Violent changes of temperature are frequent, as a consequence of change of wind, especially in spring. Harvest takes place a month later than in Moravia.

### (4) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Racially the Duchy is made up of three distinct areas, comprising a section of German territory in the west, one of Czecho-Slovak territory in the centre, and one of Polish territory in the east. The German territory comprises the three western political districts (*politische Bezirke*) of Freiwaldau, Freudenthal, and

Jägerndorf, with the town of Troppau and the southern part of the rural district of Troppau. In this area, which forms the greater part of Western Silesia, the Germans, who speak the Silesian dialect, number everywhere over 89 per cent. of the population.

The Czecho-Slovak territory includes in Western Silesia the northern part of the rural district of Troppau, the district of Wagstadt, and in Eastern Silesia the rural district of Friedek. Here the inhabitants are of the same race, and speak approximately the same dialect, as the Slovaks of Hungary and the Czechs of Bohemia and Moravia. According to the census of 1910 they then formed 64 per cent. of the population in the district of Wagstadt, 75 per cent. in the northern part of the rural district of Troppau, and 78 per cent. in the rural district of Friedek. The minority in Wagstadt and Troppau was almost wholly German, and in Friedek consisted of Poles (15 per cent.) and Germans (7 per cent.).

The Poles occupy the rural district of Bielitz and the districts of Teschen and Freistadt, forming 77, 76, and 63 per cent. of the population respectively. The minorities consist of Germans (21, 17, and 13 per cent.) and Czecho-Slovaks (1, 6, and 23 per cent.). The town and suburbs of Bielitz, with the adjoining town of Biała in Galicia, are a German colony in Polish territory, the Germans forming 84 per cent. of the inhabitants of Bielitz, the Poles 14 per cent. The Poles do not differ in race or language from those of the adjoining districts of Galicia and Prussian Silesia.

The distribution of the different nationalities of the Duchy is thus unusually simple. The west is solidly German, with virtually no admixture of other races. The centre, i.e. the area on either side of the Moravian tongue, roughly bounded by lines drawn north-north-west and south-south-east through Troppau and Oderberg, has a Czecho-Slovak majority of some 70 per cent., while the east is predominantly Polish. Mixed populations only exist in the mining district and in a few towns.



## (5) POPULATION

*Distribution*

According to the census of 1910 the population was composed as follows :

	<i>German.</i>	<i>Czecho-Slovak.</i>	<i>Polish.</i>	<i>Others.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Numbers . . . .	325,523	180,348	235,224	361	741,456
Per cent. . . . .	43.90	24.33	31.72	.05	100

Eastern Silesia, which covers rather less than half the area of the Duchy, contains over 57 per cent. of the population, the density of population (in 1910) being, in Eastern Silesia 493 per square mile, and in Western Silesia 290 per square mile. The densest areas are the districts of Freistadt, with 995 per square mile, and Friedek, with 554. The parts of these districts in which the coal-field is situated have a still greater density. On the whole the German parts of the Duchy are the most thinly populated, with under 300 per square mile ; the Czecho-Slovak area has from 330 to 550 per square mile ; and the Polish from 280 to 995. The Duchy as a whole, with 380 to the square mile, is the second in density of the lands of the Austrian Monarchy, being exceeded in this respect by Lower Austria alone. The population increases in density from south to north with the fall in the altitude of the country.

*Towns*

There were six towns with over 10,000 inhabitants in 1910, namely : Troppau, the administrative capital of the Duchy (30,762), Polish-Ostrau (22,892), Teschen (22,489), Bielitz (18,568), Jägerndorf (16,121), and Karwin (15,761). Sixteen other towns have more than 5,000 inhabitants. Only three of these twenty-two towns are independent administrative districts, viz. Troppau, Bielitz, and Friedek. The absence of large towns makes the great density of population the more remarkable.

*Movement*

The population of the Duchy has increased at a slightly more rapid rate in the past few decades than that of the whole Monarchy. The greater rate of increase has not been due to immigration, but to the higher rate for the excess of births over deaths among the Polish and Czecho-Slovak populations. The increase in the period 1900-10 was 76,527 persons, a rate of 11·2 per thousand per annum (17·7 for Eastern and 3·5 for Western Silesia). The annual birth-rate during the period was 37·6 per thousand, the death-rate 24·5 per thousand. Thus the excess of births over deaths was 13·1 per thousand per annum. It was highest (26) in the industrial district, and in general three times as high in the Polish and Czecho-Slovak districts (19) as in the German districts, where it was only 6.

On the whole, the Duchy lost by migration in the decade to the extent of 17,003 persons. There was thus considerably more emigration than in the previous decade, when the loss only amounted to 548 persons.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1025. Bohemian conquest of Silesia from Poland.
- 1058-79. Polish revival under Boleslav II. Reconquest of Silesia.
- 1138. Partition of Polish Crown territories.
- 1146. Deposition of Wladislav.
- 1163. Intervention of Barbarossa. Restoration of Silesia to Wladislav's sons.
- 1241. Mongol invasion ; battle of Liegnitz.
- 1290-1331. Growth of Bohemian suzerainty.
- 1424. Hussite raids on Silesia begin.
- 1448. George of Poděbrad assumes the regency of Bohemia.
- 1458. George of Poděbrad elected King of Bohemia.
- 1466. Excommunication of George of Poděbrad.
- 1469. Matthias Corvinus proclaimed King of Bohemia.
- 1471. Death of George of Poděbrad.
- 1479. Treaty of Brünn. Silesia ceded to Matthias.
- 1490. Death of Matthias Corvinus. Silesia reverts to Wladislav of Bohemia. Constitutional concessions render Silesia autonomous.
- 1526. Ferdinand of Austria elected King of Bohemia.
- 1537. Covenant of Succession between Liegnitz and Brandenburg.
- 1546. Estates of Silesia declare Covenant invalid.
- 1550. Silesia brought directly under Habsburg dominion.
- 1618-20. Bohemian revolution.
- 1621. Terms granted to Silesia by Accord of Dresden.
- 1648. Treaty of Westphalia.
- 1675. Death of Duke of Liegnitz. Claim of Elector of Brandenburg under Covenant of Succession.
- 1686. Brandenburg commutes Silesian claims for cession of Schwiebus.
- 1694. Restoration of Schwiebus. Silesian claims raised but not pressed.
- 1740. Death of Emperor Charles VI. Frederick II invades Silesia.
- 1742. Treaty of Berlin. Cession of Prussian Silesia.
- 1745. Treaty of Dresden, confirming terms of 1742.

1763. Treaty of Hubertsburg, confirming terms of 1742.

1781. Abolition of serfdom in Austrian Silesia.

1848-68. Bohemians claim reconstitution of ancient kingdom,  
including Austrian Silesia.

### (1) EARLY HISTORY

THE history of Silesia, before its occupation by a Slav race, is purely conjectural. In the latter half of the ninth century the people of Silesia recognized the rule of Svatoplak of Moravia, who established a temporary authority over the large district extending from the Theiss in Hungary to Bohemia and Bavaria. After the fall of the Moravian Empire, Silesia, in the course of the tenth century, came partly under Poland and partly under Bohemia. In the last years of the tenth century, when the power of Bohemia decreased, the whole of Silesia fell under the dominion of Boleslav the Great of Poland. The tenth century was a crucial period in the history of Silesia, for it decided that its future was not to be linked with that of the Eastern Slavs. The influence of Polish and Bohemian conquerors tended to force Silesia into the general current of Western European history by bringing it into contact alike with the organization of the Roman Church and with the feudal constitution of the Western kingdoms. The story of Silesia in the eleventh century is connected with the continuous struggles between Poland and Bohemia and with the first German intervention. Boleslav the Great of Poland died in 1025, and the Bohemians, under Bretislav, reconquered Silesia, but the Emperor Henry III, after an expedition to Prague, compelled Bretislav to do homage for Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. In the middle and end of the century there was a Polish revival under Boleslav II (1058-79), in the course of which Silesia was again recovered. It was held by the Poles against a German invasion under the Emperor Henry V in 1109.

The separate history of Silesia begins with the death of Boleslav III of Poland in 1139. He had made, in



the preceding year, a partition of the Polish territories among his four sons, and this partition soon led to the independence of Silesia and to the Germanization of the greater part of it. The eldest of the four, Wladislav, who, by his father's settlement, retained a superiority over the possessions of his brothers, was deposed by his brother Boleslav in 1146, and took refuge in Germany, where he died in 1159. By the intervention, in 1163, of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, Boleslav IV of Poland was compelled to restore Silesia to the three sons of Wladislav. One of them died soon afterwards and his share passed to his eldest brother, and Silesia became divided into the two dukedoms of Lower and Upper Silesia, with Breslau and Ratibor as their respective capitals.

## (2) GROWTH OF GERMAN INFLUENCE

Both the brothers set themselves to encourage the German influence to which they owed their possessions, invited German colonists to settle in Silesia, and introduced German methods of administration. Breslau, the capital of Lower Silesia, was made a German city. German immigration continued on a large scale throughout the succeeding century, and Silesia owed to German settlers the reclamation of much waste land and the beginnings of its mining and weaving industries; but a considerable proportion of the country remained Polish in nationality and in sympathy. Industrial and agricultural development was checked in the middle of the thirteenth century by the Mongol invasion under Batu, who attacked Poland in 1241. Marching into Silesia, he defeated at Liegnitz (April 9) a large army of Poles and Germans under Henry II, Duke of Lower Silesia, and forced his way into Hungary. The opposition offered by the Silesians is regarded as having broken the force of the invasion, and as having made Silesia a rampart of the Empire; but the immediate results of the battle were disastrous, for the Mongols burned the towns and ravaged the country.

By the end of the thirteenth century, the greater part of Silesia was becoming definitely German. The ruling houses were either German in origin or had accepted the German language and customs, and Duke Henry IV of Breslau (1266–90) is remembered as one of the Minnesinger. The characteristic features of its history in the fourteenth century are the constant subdivisions of territory on the death of a duke, and the establishment of intimate relations with the Luxemburg kings of Bohemia. In the course of the century, Lower Silesia came to be divided into nine principalities—Brieg, Breslau, Liegnitz, Schweidnitz, Jauer, Münsterberg, Glogau, Steinau, and Öls; and Upper Silesia into eight principalities—Kosel, Teschen, Beuthen, Falkenberg, Oppeln, Strehlitz, Ratibor, and Troppau. The last named was originally a Bohemian fief, united to Upper Silesia about 1340; the district of Jägerndorf was detached from it about twenty-five years later. To these lay principalities has to be added the episcopal principality of Neisse; and in 1428 an additional principality—Sagan—was created in Lower Silesia. These subdivisions brought about internal conflicts and disorder, and they explain, to some extent, the growing dependence of Silesia upon the German rulers of Bohemia; another part of the explanation is to be found in the differences between the German and the Polish populations of the province, and in the desire of the Germanized Dukes of Silesia to obtain German protection against the reviving power of Poland. In 1327 the princes of Upper Silesia and the Duke of Breslau took oaths of fealty to John of Bohemia; and within four years the large majority of the princes of Lower Silesia followed their example. From 1331 to 1742 Silesia was almost continuously a province of Bohemia, in feudal subjection to the Bohemian Crown. Under King John and the Emperor Charles IV, the Bohemian connexion was strengthened by the marriage of Charles IV to the heiress of Schweidnitz and Jauer, and by the transference or lapse of some of the small Silesian principalities to the Bohemian Crown. By the

end of the fourteenth century, Silesia, with Moravia and Lusatia, had become, constitutionally, Crown lands. Until the outbreak of the Hussite wars, the dependence of Silesia upon Bohemia was of great advantage to the country, both in the establishment of an ordered government and in the development of trade and industry.

### (3) HUSSITE WARS

At the outbreak of the Hussite wars, German Silesia was faithful to the German Sigismund, and supplied him with troops; and, when the Hussite leader, Procopius, began, about 1424, his series of offensive operations, Silesia was frequently invaded and ravaged. After the death of Procopius in the course of the civil war which developed among the Hussites, the Bohemians in 1436 acknowledged Sigismund's authority; but the Emperor's death in 1437 again created a situation in which the interests of the ruling classes in Silesia were antagonistic to a national movement in Bohemia. Sigismund's son-in-law, Albert of Austria, was elected King by the Bohemian Estates, but he died within two years, leaving a posthumous son Ladislav.

### (4) CZECH REVIVAL

The infant was, in turn, elected to the throne, but a strong national leader, George of Poděbrad, began to revive the national spirit of the Czechs. In 1448, George of Poděbrad led an army to Prague and assumed the regency, and, after the death of Ladislav, he was elected King in 1458. The province of Silesia was, therefore, under the rule of a Czech monarch. The position was not resented by the Silesian Poles; and, as the Papacy recognized the election and the Moravians offered no resistance, the German Silesians were unable to do more than make ineffectual protests, although Breslau obstinately declined to acknowledge the authority of George of Poděbrad. While George of Poděbrad succeeded in



maintaining peaceful relations with the Papacy and with Matthias Corvinus, the King of Hungary, the permanent submission of Silesia to Czech rule remained a possibility of the situation. But in 1466 George was excommunicated by Pope Paul II; and Matthias Corvinus gave his support to the party in Bohemia which wished to bring about a complete reunion with the Papacy. In the war which followed, the German Silesians rebelled against King George, who was supported by the non-German population. When Matthias invaded Moravia and was proclaimed King of Bohemia and Moravia at Olmütz in 1469, the German Silesians welcomed an opportunity of escaping from Czech rule and acknowledged the authority of Matthias. George died in 1471, and the national party in Bohemia elected Wladislav (Ladislaus), son of Casimir IV of Poland. The struggle which ensued lasted for some seven years, during which there was civil war between the Germans and the Poles in Silesia. The German party temporarily triumphed, for, in accordance with a compromise made at Olmütz in 1478 and confirmed by the Treaty of Brünn (1479), the provinces of Silesia, Moravia, and Lusatia were ceded for his lifetime to Matthias, who, in turn, recognised the authority of Wladislav in Bohemia.

The administration of Matthias Corvinus marks an era in the constitutional history of Silesia. He established a Diet of princes and instituted an efficient central government, confiscating, as Charles IV had done, the lands of rebellious feudatories. These measures, and the financial exactions which accompanied them, were productive of much discontent; and when, on the death of Matthias in 1490, Silesia passed again to the Bohemian Crown, the nobles obtained from Wladislav a number of concessions which made Silesia practically autonomous. The Estates received the right of regular session; and among the privileges conceded were exemption from compulsory military service outside Silesia and freedom from arbitrary taxation. These privileges were retained under Wladi-



slav's son and successor, Louis, King of Bohemia and Hungary (1516-26). The death of Louis, in a Turkish war in 1526, brought Silesia again under German rule, for the Bohemians elected as their sovereign the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria (afterwards the Emperor Ferdinand I), a brother-in-law of Louis. Silesia thus became part of the Habsburg dominions; but the events of the whole period from the outbreak of the Hussite wars had accentuated the differences between Poles, Czechs, and Germans in Silesia, and had given confidence and some unity to the non-German elements.

#### (5) SILESIA IN THE REFORMATION

At the date of the accession of Ferdinand to the Bohemian throne, the Reformation struggle had already begun. During the Hussite wars German Silesians had been the devoted upholders of the Papal cause and of the unity of the Church; but, when the reformed doctrines came to them from German sources and ceased to be associated with Czech nationalism, these doctrines made many converts, and, before the death of Louis II in 1526, the Reformed Church had obtained a strong hold in Silesia. Difficulties in Hungary and the Turkish menace prevented Ferdinand from taking any strong measures of repression at the time of his accession; and the growth of Protestantism continued undisturbed. At the outbreak of the Schmalkaldic War in 1546, the Silesians, who had borne their share of the struggle against the Turks, declined Ferdinand's request to supply troops for the Imperialist army, and, in common with their Bohemian fellow Protestants, showed symptoms of insurrection. After the Imperial victory at Mühlberg, Ferdinand levied heavy fines on the Silesian duchies. Protestantism was protected by the general settlement made at Augsburg; but the Counter-Reformation began to influence Silesia, and Jesuit missions were encouraged by Ferdinand. Important constitutional changes were made after the war. The ancient ecclesiastical dependence upon the recently secularized

Archbishopric of Magdeburg, which from the fourteenth century had encouraged German influences in Silesia, was abolished and replaced by an appeal court at Prague. The privileges granted by Wladislav to the Silesian Estates were so greatly restricted as practically to disappear; and the right of refusing to serve beyond the Silesian borders, which involved a claim to decide on questions of foreign policy, was withdrawn. A new financial organization brought the country directly under the Bohemian Crown, and from 1550 Silesia was actually governed by the Habsburgs. Under the mild rule of Maximilian II, Protestantism suffered more from internal dissensions than from persecution; but, with the accession of Rudolf II in 1576, a policy of repression began and led to considerable trouble in Silesia, in the course of which Troppau was placed under the ban of the Empire. The revolt of Rudolf's brother, Matthias, made it necessary for the Emperor to obtain the support of the Bohemians; and in 1609 he issued *Majestätsbriefe* for Bohemia and Silesia, permitting freedom of conscience. The common danger to Protestantism had united Bohemians and Silesians and removed the recollection of ancient jealousies; and in the final crisis of Rudolf's reign they acted together in deposing Rudolf and electing Matthias (1612).

#### (6) BOHEMIAN REVOLT

In the troubles of the short reign of Matthias, Silesia followed the fortunes of Bohemia; and the failure of the Bohemian Protestants in 1617 to resist the acknowledgement of the bigoted Ferdinand of Styria as the heir to the Bohemian Crown was followed by his recognition by the Estates of Silesia. In the following year the Bohemian Protestants rebelled, and the Silesian Estates threw in their lot with the revolutionaries. The attitude of Silesia was largely determined by John George, Duke of Jägerndorf, whose claim to the duchy, based on the will of George Frederick, son of Margrave George the Pious of Anspach (cf. *infra*, p. 17), was dis-

puted by the Emperor. The Bohemian revolution collapsed in 1620; and the Silesians appealed for terms to the Elector of Saxony, who had been entrusted with the reduction of the province. The conditions granted, which were by no means oppressive, were embodied in the Accord of Dresden (February 1621), an agreement to which, on account of its mildness, the consent of the Emperor was somewhat reluctantly given. John George was, however, excepted from the general amnesty, and his duchy was confiscated.

In spite of the agreement arrived at by the Accord of Dresden, Silesia was not destined to enjoy peace. The district remained a cockpit of contending forces till near the end of the Thirty Years' War. The sufferings of Silesia in the years 1618-48 can easily be understood from the descriptions given by German historians of the atrocities committed by the armies; and its industry, especially the mines, did not recover from the effects of the war for a very long period.

By the Treaty of Westphalia, Silesia passed, with Bohemia, under the rule of the Imperial House. The Emperor Ferdinand III granted, by the treaty, to the Duchies of Liegnitz, Brieg, and Öls, and to the city of Breslau, the religious liberties enjoyed before the war, and he also promised some measure of toleration to Protestantism throughout the province.

The promises made at the time of the Treaty of Westphalia were not generously interpreted, or even honourably observed; and Silesian Protestants suffered from repressive measures until 1707, when Charles XII of Sweden, in making the Treaty of Altranstadt with the Emperor Joseph I, intervened on their behalf.

### (7) HOHENZOLLERN CLAIMS

But the only political importance of Silesian history during the years from 1648-1740 lies in the development of the Brandenburg claims upon portions of the province. At the date of the Treaty of Westphalia, the House of Brandenburg had a shadowy claim upon the



Duchies of Ratibor and Oppeln. To understand this it is necessary to go back to the reigns of Wladislav and Louis in the sixteenth century. George the Pious, Margrave of Anspach, was a favourite nephew of Wladislav, and acted as tutor to the future King Louis. Having certain pecuniary claims over some of his uncle's Hungarian possessions, he commuted these for a promise of the succession to the childless Dukes of Ratibor and Oppeln, whose goodwill he succeeded in obtaining to the arrangement, though Wladislav had no right to make it. Though Ferdinand, on his succession to Louis in 1526, seems to have given some sort of confirmation to the scheme, the Margrave's right to the duchies had never been fully admitted; and in 1546, after the Silesian disaffection at the outbreak of the Schmalkaldic War, George Frederick, the successor of George the Pious, was deprived by Ferdinand of all authority over the duchies, which were held to have escheated to the Crown. In the course of the Thirty Years' War they had more than once been used as inducements to obtain assistance for the Imperial cause. The claim to these duchies by the House of Brandenburg, being based on the title of George Frederick, was accordingly very doubtful. George Frederick had, however, purported to leave these duchies, together with that of Jägerndorf, to the Elector of Brandenburg by will.

The claim to Jägerndorf, though certainly open to question, was more substantial. This duchy was purchased by George the Pious in 1524, but it was doubtful whether his enfeoffment could include persons who were not direct descendants; and on this ground the will of George Frederick, in so far as it dealt with Jägerndorf, had been disputed by the Emperor. The duchy was, however, actually held in conformity with the terms of the will until Duke John George was placed under the ban of the Empire for his share in the Bohemian Revolution (1622) and his duchy confiscated. Efforts to secure Jägerndorf for Brandenburg at Westphalia were fruitless; but the Great Elector had asserted his



right of succession on the death of Ernest, the only son of John George, in 1642, and he continued to maintain his claim to the duchy.

The death, in 1675, of George William, Duke of Liegnitz, Wohlau, and Brieg, furnished the Great Elector with new claims in Silesia. In 1537 Frederick II, Duke of Liegnitz, who had married one of the daughters of George the Pious, made with the House of Brandenburg a Covenant of Succession, by which, if the heirs of Frederick should fail, the Silesian Duchies of Liegnitz, Brieg, and Wohlau should pass to the House of Brandenburg, and similarly the Bohemian territories of Brandenburg on failure of heirs should pass to the House of Liegnitz. Such an agreement was obviously incompatible with the state of Liegnitz as a fief of the Bohemian Crown; and the arrangement was repudiated by the Emperor Charles V and King Ferdinand. In 1546 the Estates of Silesia examined the deed; it was declared invalid, and Ferdinand ordered the destruction of both the Liegnitz and Brandenburg copies. The Liegnitz copy was destroyed, but the Brandenburg copy was preserved, in defiance of Imperial orders; and, on the death of George William, the Great Elector put forward his claim, again defying the Emperor Leopold, who asked him to give up the document. The Great Elector offered to commute the new claims for Jägerndorf, but failed to obtain this concession, and, in revenge, he entered into close relations with France. In 1682, when Vienna was threatened by the Turks, the Great Elector offered to send a force; and, on the Emperor's declining the offer, the troops were sent to occupy the Silesian duchies claimed by Brandenburg.

Four years afterwards, a reconciliation with the Emperor still further complicated the question of the Brandenburg claims in Silesia. The Great Elector agreed to abandon all his Silesian claims for the cession of the Circle of Schwiebus, part of the Duchy of Glogau, which had been escheated to the Bohemian Crown in the end of the fifteenth century. He was placed in

possession of the territory, which, from 1686 to 1694, was included in the Brandenburg possessions. But his son, the Electoral Prince Frederick, was on bad terms with the Elector, and he entered into a secret agreement to return the territory to Austria, on his own accession to Brandenburg, either in the hope of conferment of the royal dignity upon Brandenburg-Prussia or as part of an arrangement for the repudiation of the will which the Great Elector was believed to have made. The Great Elector died in 1688; and, after some years of negotiation, the Circle of Schwiebus was restored. The Elector Frederick III took the opportunity of insisting that the restoration *ipso facto* revived the original claims to Liegnitz, Brieg, Wohlau, and Jägerndorf; but the justice of this assertion was not admitted by the Emperor, who, indeed, insisted that every Hohenzollern claim in Silesia was invalidated by the circumstance that neither Margrave George the Pious nor Duke Frederick II of Liegnitz possessed any power of conferring the succession on any one not descended from themselves. Jägerndorf, Liegnitz, Brieg, Wohlau, Oppeln, and Ratibor had all, in the view of the Emperor, escheated to the Bohemian Crown, as many other Silesian principalities had done. The circumstance that Hohenzollern tenacity had insisted on a repeated assertion of the claims could not give any validity to them.

From the restoration of Schwiebus in 1694 to the death of the Emperor Charles VI in October 1740, the Hohenzollern pretensions were in abeyance; and King Frederick William I of Prussia paid, in 1732, a visit to Charles VI, in the course of which he was entertained, as the Emperor's guest, in Liegnitz and Jägerndorf. Frederick William I had died six months before the Emperor; and his successor, Frederick II, immediately on receiving the news of the death of Charles VI, determined on an invasion of Silesia. Prussia, like the rest of the Empire, had accepted the Pragmatic Sanction; and Frederick II had, in point of fact, much stronger claims upon the Duchies of Berg and Jülich than on

Silesia. But he had no intention of observing the pledge given by his father to acknowledge the succession of Maria Theresa ; and an attack upon the Rhine duchies was certain to lead to difficulties with France and Holland, while Silesia lay at his mercy.

### (8) SILESIAN WARS

It is unnecessary to give more than a very brief outline of the Silesian wars. When Frederick demanded his 'rights', Maria Theresa refused ; but, without waiting for a reply, he proceeded to invade Silesia, asserting pretexts about dangers from Saxony and Bavaria, which he afterwards disavowed in his *Memoirs*. Frederick marched up the Oder to Breslau, which capitulated (January 2, 1741); and except for resistance from the hastily defended fortresses of Brieg, Glogau, and Neisse, little or no opposition was made to the invaders. Glogau was captured on March 9, but an Austrian army relieved Neisse early in April and was marching on Brieg when Frederick defeated it at Mollwitz (April 10). Brieg fell in May ; and Maria Theresa, threatened by a new enemy, had to withdraw her troops from Silesia in October. The new enemy was France, with which Frederick had made an offensive alliance by the Treaty of Breslau (June 1741). The rest of the fighting of the campaign was in Bohemia ; and Frederick was left to seize the Silesian strongholds. By the Peace of Breslau in June 1742 (confirmed at Berlin in July), Maria Theresa ceded to Frederick Upper and Lower Silesia, exclusive of Troppau and Teschen, and, in addition, the district of Glatz ; and the King of Prussia, in return, deserted his French, Bavarian, and Saxon allies. The acquiescence of Maria Theresa in the loss of Silesia was understood to be only temporary ; and in 1744 Frederick again made an alliance with France and with Bavaria and other German States. In the second Silesian War, Frederick invaded Bohemia and captured Prague (August 1744), but had to retire into Silesia, followed



by an Austrian army, which, however, was soon driven back into Bohemia by the difficulties of a winter campaign. In the summer of 1745 a second Austrian invasion of Silesia was repelled by Frederick's victory at Hohenfriedberg (May); and the Prussians again entered Bohemia. They defeated the Austrians at Sohr in September, and Frederick gained a third victory at Hennersdorf in November. At Christmas 1745, in return for the recognition of his Silesian possessions, Frederick acknowledged Francis I, the husband of Maria Theresa, as Emperor.

The recovery of Silesia was one of the objects of Maria Theresa in making the alliance with France which is known as the Diplomatic Revolution; and Frederick had to defend his booty in the Seven Years' War. When, however, hostilities ceased, the Austrians held Glatz, but no other part of Silesia. The Treaty of Hubertusburg (February 15, 1763) restored the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin of 1745; and the Prussians were left in possession of the whole of Silesia, except the districts of Troppau and Teschen, which included the larger part of Jägerndorf.

Austria, while maintaining up to the present time the use of the old term, Upper and Lower Silesia, to describe the mutilated fragment left to her, has never made any military effort to recover the province. Suggestions for the restoration of the whole of Silesia were, however, made during the Napoleonic Wars; and so recently as 1866, in the negotiations between Austria and France which preceded the Austro-Prussian War, the Emperor Francis Joseph made the recovery of Silesia one of the objects of a proposed alliance with Napoleon III.

#### (9) AUSTRIAN SILESIA AFTER 1742

The territory ceded by Maria Theresa to Frederick II was 'all Silesia, except Teschen and the district beyond the River Oppa and the high mountains'. The formula was not without ambiguity, but the



boundary commissions appointed by Frederick II were not disturbed by any Austrian opposition. The small Silesian province has been regarded, since 1742, as an Austrian, not as a Bohemian, province; and in the administrative reorganization carried out by the Emperor Joseph II soon after his accession, it was united with Moravia to form one of the thirteen Departments of the Empire. During his mother's lifetime, Joseph, who shared the responsibilities of government with Maria Theresa, had obtained her consent, in 1773, to the adoption of measures designed to improve the condition of the peasants; and the steps then taken had been the occasion of serious peasant risings in Silesia and the neighbouring districts. But in 1781, when he was sole ruler, he abolished serfdom in Silesia, Moravia, and Bohemia.

Since that date, the history of the province presents no special features, except in 1848 and 1868. In the former year the Bohemians included among the revolutionary demands sent to Vienna the reconstitution of the ancient Bohemian kingdom, including Silesia and Moravia. The claim met the fate of most of the other national and democratic attempts of that year, but it was revived twenty years afterwards. In the interval the constitutions of 1861 and 1867 had given Silesia representatives in the Austrian Reichsrath, but this entirely failed to satisfy Bohemian aspirations; and in October 1868 the national party, during a visit of the Emperor Francis Joseph to Prague, again asked for the revival of the old kingdom. Silesia had in the rearrangements after 1848 become a separate province; and German influence was sufficiently strong in the provincial Diet to obtain a majority against the Bohemian national programme. The Moravian Diet adopted the same attitude. After the suppression of the Bohemian revolt in 1868-9, the question of the relations of Austrian Silesia to Bohemia did not again arise as a matter of practical politics.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) POLITICAL

POLITICAL conditions in Austrian Silesia are complicated by racial distribution and by the Czech claim that the province is part of the old Bohemian kingdom. The census of 1910 showed that there are three large racial groups. Comparison with the census of 1900 shows that while German and Czecho-Slovak elements are increasing the numbers of the Poles have diminished. Other nationalities (Ruthenian, Slovenian, Serbian, Croatian, and Italian) number only 361 individuals in all. The Poles have maintained, through the many centuries of their separation from the Polish kingdom, a strong sense of nationality and of their community of interest with the Poles elsewhere, and the Czechs have a similar feeling towards the Bohemians. These racial differences are marked both in the provincial Diet and in the selection of the twelve Silesian members of the Reichsrat. For administrative purposes, Silesia is divided into nine government districts, with three autonomous towns—Bielitz, Friedek, and the capital, Troppau.

#### (2) RELIGIOUS AND EDUCATIONAL

An overwhelming proportion (nearly 85 per cent.) of the inhabitants of Austrian Silesia are Roman Catholics. The Protestants number only about 14 per cent., nearly all Poles, and 1 per cent. are Jews. There is an adequate supply of educational facilities, provided by 21 Bürgerschulen (primary schools), 7 Ober-gymnasia, 4 Oberrealschulen, 10 Handelsschulen, and Agricultural and Technical Colleges. Of the higher grade schools the Germans have the greatest number in proportion to their population, and the Poles the smallest.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

*Introductory Note.*—Austrian Silesia is 1,987 square miles in extent—almost the size of Northumberland. Its area is 1·7 per cent. of that of all Austria (115,851 square miles), and 9·9 per cent. of that of Bohemia (20,058 square miles). This latter ratio affords a simple index of value when a comparison is made between the absolute figures of production in Austrian Silesia and Bohemia respectively. The population of Austrian Silesia is 2·6 per cent. of the population of all Austria, and is relatively dense, viz. 148 to the square kilometre, as compared with the corresponding figures for Bohemia (130) and for all Austria (105); while the last census showed, for the previous ten years, a greater increase (10·9 per cent.) than that of Austria as a whole (8·6 per cent.) or of Bohemia (7·5 per cent.).

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) *Roads and Canals*

Austrian Silesia has more roads to the 100 square kilometres than any other province of Austria, viz. 76·7 kilometres, as compared with 63·7 in Bohemia and 40·4 in all Austria. In waterways, however, it is remarkably poor, and compares unfavourably with Bohemia. It has to the 100 square kilometres only 27 kilometres of waterway fit for boats and none fit for steamers.

The construction of the Elbe, Oder, Danube, and Vistula canals will of course alter this, as the Oder will then be linked up with the canal from Pardubitz to Prerau. Indeed, although the Oder is not an easy river to canalize, since at certain places, e. g. Oderberg, it is liable to flood, a beginning has already been made.

In 1911 the authorities in Prussian Silesia, tired of waiting for the great canal system which had been promised so long, were making the river navigable for vessels of 150 tons as far as Ratibor, some 25 kilometres from the Austrian Silesian frontier. When the canal schemes are carried out, Austrian Silesia will be in the centre of the system, and the industries of the province will certainly be benefited. It will then be possible, for instance, for the coal of Austrian Silesia to be sold to Hungary at a lower price, owing to the facilities for cheap transport afforded by the Danube-Oder Canal.

### (b) *Railways*

As part of the Austrian State Railway system (there are no private lines) the railways of Austrian Silesia call for little comment. The network is less dense (1 km. to 8·18 sq. km.) than in Bohemia (1 km. to 7·7 sq. km.), but denser than in Moravia (1 km. to 10·57 sq. km.), and sometimes it is insufficient for the carrying needs of the community ; in 1907, to take one instance, the output of the Austrian Alpine Mining Company's coal-mine at Orlau was restricted by congestion on the Ferdinands Nordbahn.

The system possesses one striking feature. Oderberg, just within the Austrian frontier, is the junction at which several long stretches of double lines (the only 'through' double lines in this section of Europe) intersect, viz. the lines from Berlin to Vienna *via* Breslau, from Berlin to Hungary, from Vienna to Warsaw and Petrograd, and from Vienna to Cracow and Lemberg. This cannot fail to influence the commercial and industrial future of Austrian Silesia. Even now the province is visited by a relatively larger number of travellers than Bohemia and Moravia, and this in spite of the fashionable 'cure' resorts of Bohemia, which are responsible for a large influx of visitors thither.



## (B). INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

In this part of Austria, as in Bohemia, the number of persons engaged in agriculture has shown a decline of recent years, while the number of those engaged in industrial pursuits has increased.

In 1910, 6 per cent. of the total number of persons employed were members of trade unions, the same percentage as in Bohemia and Moravia. Strikes, however, were even less frequent in Austrian Silesia than in these two other provinces.

In the coal-mines a relatively much larger number of women and children are employed than in the lignite mines of Bohemia, and the yearly wage of the coal miners in Austrian Silesia, though higher than that of coal miners in other parts of Austria, is considerably lower than that of the lignite miners in the Teplitz and Falkenau districts of Bohemia.

### (2) AGRICULTURE

Austrian Silesia is less fertile than Bohemia, producing less per hectare (2·47 acres) of all the important crops, and very much less in the case of wheat and sugar-beet. Of valuable crops like sugar-beet and flax, its absolute production is very small. About half the area of the province consists of arable land and gardens, and about 12 per cent. is devoted to hay or pasture. The chief crops are oats, rye, clover, potatoes, barley, and wheat. Fruit, including the vine, is grown principally in the north-west. Domestic animals are comparatively few, but the number of goats kept is above the average for Austria. Dairy-farming is prosperous, notably in the western districts. Deer, fish, and small game are plentiful.

The following table shows the production of the principal crops in all Austria, Bohemia, and Austrian Silesia in 1911 in hundreds of metric tons :

	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Rye.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Straw.</i>	<i>Potatoes.</i>	<i>Sugar- beet.</i>	<i>Flax (seed and fibre).</i>
All Austria .	16026	26446	16201	22700	167495	116049	42497	388
Bohemia .	3670	8270	5499	6490	36450	16930	21180	108
Austrian Silesia .	123	596	298	680	2840	2270	340	4

In 1913 the figures for the 'corn' (? wheat)<sup>1</sup> harvest were (in hundreds of metric tons): All Austria, 16,228; Bohemia, 4,837; Austrian Silesia, 140.

It is thus not to its fertility that Austrian Silesia is indebted for its relatively large population. Neither do its forest industries account for this, although in Silesia a rather larger proportion (34 per cent.) of the total area of the province is under forest than is the case in Bohemia, while the production of timber is relatively twice as great. In 1913 the forest areas were as follows: All Austria, 9,768,000 hectares; Bohemia, 1,538,000 hectares; Austrian Silesia, 179,000 hectares. Some 60 per cent. of the trees are coniferous (chiefly spruce); the remainder is, for the most part, mixed timber.

### (3) MINERALS

*Coal.*—As the following figures show, it is to its coal-mines that Austrian Silesia owes its industrial prosperity:

#### NUMBER OF HANDS (INCLUDING WOMEN AND CHILDREN)<sup>2</sup> EMPLOYED IN VARIOUS KINDS OF MINING, 1910

	<i>Coal.</i>	<i>Lignite.</i>	<i>Iron.</i>	<i>Other metals.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Bohemia . . .	22676	35899	1862	3925	64362
Moravia . . .	12167	645	32	350	13194
Austrian Silesia . . .	32315	3	13	5	32336
Galicia . . .	6421	441	107	695	7644
All Austria . . .	74112	56954	5607	10594	147267

<sup>1</sup> These figures agree approximately with the wheat harvest of other years. They are from the *Neue Freie Presse* of October 29, 1918.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. the figures for the population (1910) in millions: Bohemia, 6·7; Moravia, 2·6; Austrian Silesia, 0·7; all Austria, 28·7.

Austrian Silesia, with an area of one-tenth of Bohemia, has half as many hands employed in all kinds of mining, and a much larger number employed in bituminous coal-mining.

The coal-field of Austrian Silesia is part of the great Silesian field which extends in the south over the Austrian frontier to Mährisch-Ostrau and Karwin, in the east to Tenczynek in Galicia, and to Dombrova in Poland. The amount of coal in the Ostrau-Karwin basin, of which about one-third may be apportioned to Austrian Silesia (the rest being in Moravia), is estimated at 3,700,000,000 tons.

The Austrian coal has to be got at a lower depth, and is therefore more expensive to mine than the Prussian coal; it is also of lower calorific value and is not so good for house use as the Prussian coal, much of which is sent to Vienna. On the other hand, the Austrian coal is better for coking. This is important, as the Polish coal is non-coking, and Poland has to import considerable quantities of coke from Prussia and Austria for smelting iron ore; this import of coke into Poland has increased largely of recent years, although, owing to the development of the Dombrova field, the import of coal has largely decreased. The following figures give the production of coke in 1910 in Austrian Silesia, compared with that in Bohemia and Moravia (in metric tons): Austrian Silesia, 1,325,913; Bohemia, 44,519; Moravia, 1,492,731.

The production of pit-coal in 1913 was approximately as follows (in millions of metric tons): All Austria, 16.4; Bohemia, 4.4; Moravia, 2.3; Austrian Silesia, 7.6. Of lignite Austrian Silesia produced only 1,200 tons.

Austrian Silesia has not sufficient coal for its own needs, and imports largely from Prussian Silesia. In 1917 Dzieditz, the chief receiving station, took 400,000 tons; Oderberg, Bielitz, Jägerndorf, and other towns also took large quantities.

*Iron.*—The production of iron ore in Austrian Silesia is small, and the Trzynietz smelting and rolling works

use Swedish, Hungarian, Bukovinian, Spanish, and other ores. In 1913 Austrian Silesia produced 169,900 tons of pig-iron, or nearly one-tenth of the whole output for all Austria.

*Coal and Iron Companies.*—The Austrian Mining and Smelting Company (capital (German), 35,000,000 kn.) has smelting works, steel works, and rolling mills at Trzynietz in Austrian Silesia, and mines iron ore in Hungary. It also has coal-mines and coking furnaces at Karwin, Peterswald, and Oderfurt. It acquired shares in a coal-mining company at Mährisch-Ostrau (Moravia) in 1910, and in 1912 in a Swedish iron-ore company. The Trzynietz mills employed 2,800 hands and produced 169,060 tons<sup>1</sup> of pig-iron in 1913. The company's output (in metric tons) was in 1911 as follows:

<i>Coal.</i>	<i>Coke.</i>	<i>Pig-iron.</i>	<i>Ingots.</i>	<i>Rolled Steel.</i>
1524900	441700	117400	136900	101400

The Ostrau Mining Company (capital (German), 6,000,000 kn.) has offices at Brünn, and a coal-mine at Polnisch-Ostrau. It employed 1,680 hands, and produced 481,565 tons of coal and 60,000 tons of coke in 1913. It exports to Germany, Russia, and Hungary.

The Freistadt Steel and Iron Works (capital (German-Czech), 3,000,000 kn.) have greatly enlarged their works since 1914.

The Austrian Alpine Mining Company (of Vienna) is a large concern, with mines, smelting furnaces, and machine factories in many places; among them, coal-mines at Orlau and Polnisch-Ostrau. Its production in Austrian Silesia in 1907 was 78,900 tons<sup>2</sup> of coal and iron ore.

The Wicczek-Ostrau Coal and Coke Company employed 3,161 hands in 1913; its production was: coal 673,100 tons, coke 72,540 tons, and sulphate of ammonia 955 tons.

<sup>1</sup> This amount only falls short of the whole output for Austrian Silesia in 1913 by 840 tons.

<sup>2</sup> The total output of this company in 1913 (a year of depression) was 3 million tons of coal and iron ore.



*Other mineral products* include some marble (near Friedeberg and Freiwaldau), an abundance of limestone and building stone, and numerous mineral springs.

#### (4) MANUFACTURES

The industries of the province of Silesia account for 6·37 per cent. of the total boiler-heating surface used in all the industrial establishments of Austria (as compared with 44·83 per cent. used in Bohemia and 15·98 per cent. in Moravia). This is a large percentage for its area, and points to a relatively intense industrial activity. Apart from coal production this activity is to be found chiefly in the textile industries of the province. The total number of factories in 1913 was 677, more than one-third of the number in Moravia, a province of four times the area.

##### (a) *Textiles*<sup>1</sup>

The *woollen industry* is centred at Jägerndorf and Bielitz. Jägerndorf has 24 mills employing an aggregate of 4,540 hands; Bielitz, 18 mills employing 3,400 hands. Troppau has one cloth mill with head-quarters in Vienna.

As regards the *cotton industry*, Freudenthal has 3 mills employing 2,100 hands; Friedek, 8 mills, 2,700 hands.

For *linens and flax-spinning* Freudenthal has 5 mills employing 1,920 hands; Freiwaldau employs 3,000 hands.

For *jute-spinning and rope-making* Bielitz has 2 mills employing 862 hands; Troppau, 1 mill (800 hands) belonging to the United Jute Mills of Vienna, Budapest, and Prague. Jägerndorf has one rope mill employing 120 hands.

The following table gives the approximate number of hands employed in textile production in Austrian Silesia :

<sup>1</sup> The figures and data refer to the period immediately preceding the war.

<i>Town.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Cottons.</i>	<i>Woollens.</i>	<i>Linens.</i>
Bielitz . . . .	18568	—	3400	—
Jägerndorf . . . .	16120	—	4540	—
Freudenthal . . . .	under 10000	2100	—	1920
Freiwalddau . . . .	„ „	—	—	3000
Friedek . . . .	„ „	2700	—	—

It is clear that though the aggregate production of textiles in Austrian Silesia is small, it is intensive relatively to the population of its towns: thus, small places like Freudenthal and Friedek have a larger number of cotton operatives than the larger towns of Reichenberg and Königinhof in Bohemia. Bielitz and Jägerndorf again have a relatively larger number of woollen operatives than Brünn and Neutitschein in Moravia or Asch in Bohemia.

### (b) *Other Manufactures*

*Machinery.*—Troppau has eight factories employing 930 hands; Jägerndorf, four factories with 550 hands, producing weaving, washing, and drying machines. In Freiwalddau there is one factory which produces agricultural machinery.

*Chemical Works, Oil Refineries, &c.*—The Petrowitz Chemical Works, with 380 hands, makes sulphuric acid and artificial manures. At Oderberg the Mineral Oil Refinery, with 380 hands, produced in 1913 53,310 tons of refined petroleum, paraffin, and asphalt. Two dye-works at Bielitz employ 450 hands.

*Beet Sugar.*—The production of this is insignificant—about 3 per cent. of the output of all Austria, as compared with the 33 per cent. of Moravia and the 52 per cent. of Bohemia. In 1913 all Austria produced 1,107,000 metric tons, of which Silesia's share was 34,000 tons.

*Brewing and Distilling.*—In comparison with the production of Bohemia (47·22 per cent. of the Austrian beer output), that of Austrian Silesia (2·7 per cent.) is almost negligible, but the distilling industry which is made possible by the large potato crop is relatively

considerable. The following figures (in millions of hectolitres) refer to the year 1913 :

*Beer* : All Austria, 21.0 ; Bohemia, 9.9 ; Moravia, 1.5 ; Silesia, 0.57.

*Spirits* : All Austria, 1.6 ; Bohemia, 0.46 ; Moravia, 0.19 ; Silesia, 0.09.

### (C) COMMERCE

The chief towns and the principal branches of trade have already been indicated in the foregoing sections, particularly in that which deals with manufactures. There is a Chamber of Commerce at Troppau, which, as the capital of the province, with a population of 30,000, is the head-quarters of a considerable number of grain and machinery firms and general merchants. Timber and wool are sold at Bielitz ; cloth and raw produce (including coal) are the chief articles of merchandise at Jägerndorf, grain and yarn at Freudenthal, steel tools and raw produce at Friedek, and wooden wares at Freiwaldau. Teschen, a town of 22,000 inhabitants, has a considerable trade in leather, wool, iron, and wines. Mineral springs have turned Gräfenberg, Karlsbrunn, Lindewiese, and Ustron into thriving watering-places.

### (D) FINANCE

#### (1) *Public Finance*

The following table shows the share of Austrian taxation borne by the province of Silesia in 1912 : <sup>1</sup>

	<i>All Austria.</i>	<i>Silesia.</i>
	<i>Millions of Kronen.</i>	
Taxes on Real Property . . . . .	171,774	3,139
Taxes on Personal Property . . . . .	232,260	5,815
Total gross income subject to personal taxes. .	5,960,596	143,930
Yield of Excise Taxes :		
Spirits . . . . .	100,633	4,583
Beer . . . . .	85,496	2,218
Sugar . . . . .	164,622	6,113
Total yield of all excise taxes . . . . .	420,216	18,466

<sup>1</sup> In the same year the totals for Moravia were : Real property tax, 13.9 ; Personal taxes, 17.4 ; Excise, 86.1 million kn.

(2) *Banking*

Austrian Silesia has 0·27 per cent. of the share capital of Austrian banks, as contrasted with the 1·7 per cent. of the Moravian, and the 23·35 per cent. of the Bohemian banks ; and 61,000 depositors in the Post Office Savings Bank as contrasted with Bohemia's 480,767.

The *Austro-Hungarian Bank* has branches at Teschen, Friedek, Jägerndorf, Troppau, and Bielitz.

The *Central Bank of the German Savings Banks* has branches at Bielitz, Freudenthal, Freistadt, Freiwaldau, Friedek, Friedeberg, Friedland, Jägerndorf, Teschen, and Troppau.

The *Austrian Silesian Land Credit Institution* at Troppau—founded 1869—does not carry on business for profit.

The *Communal Credit Institution of the Kingdom of Silesia* at Troppau is under the control of the Land Credit Institution.

The *Vienna Banking Company* (*Wiener Bankverein*) has branches at Bielitz, Friedek, Jägerndorf, and Teschen.

The *Imperial Credit Institution for Trade and Industry* has a branch at Troppau, as also have the *Böhmische Union Bank*, the *Austrian Industry and Trade Bank*, and the *Böhmische Industrial Bank*.

The *Bielitz-Biala Trade and Industry Bank* is a branch of the *Böhmische Union Bank*.

Austrian Silesia has 24 Savings Banks, one in each considerable town. The number of savings-bank depositors per 1,000 inhabitants (140 in 1910) is a little below the average for all Austria (149), and about half of the average of the districts in which Germans are the predominant race. Distributive co-operative societies are more numerous than is usual in other parts of Austria ; they numbered 110 in 1910, a figure only exceeded by those for Bohemia and Moravia.



## (E) GENERAL REMARKS

The three races (Germans, Poles, and Czecho-Slovaks) which inhabit the province of Silesia occupy distinct regions, only mixing at all considerably in the mining district and in the towns of Eastern Silesia.

The administrative offices, large estates, and commercial undertakings generally are in the hands of Germans or of the Germanized nobility, who especially dominate the social and economic life of the eastern part of the province, as is the case in the eastern part of Prussian Upper Silesia.

In the Polish area large landownership and large industrial undertakings are the rule; and in 1911 the large owners and capitalists were all Germans, with apparently only a single exception. The clergy and the officials are said to be all Germans. German is the administrative language; and German representatives have an overwhelming preponderance in the provincial and local councils. The Poles of the province are almost exclusively labourers and small farmers.

The standard of living in the mountainous parts of the province is relatively low. But the population in general has a reputation for industry, the Poles and Slovaks of the hill districts being a race little if at all less thrifty than the Germans, and independent both socially and economically. In industry the Poles are usually under German management, but have a reputation for aptitude in industrial work and willingness to learn. Except in the case of the miners, the general standard of wages was formerly (1880-90) among the lowest in Austria.

In agriculture and forestry the large landowners, especially in Eastern Silesia, have taken the lead in the introduction of modern methods, and appear to have remained in advance of the small farmers, though these are now following their example. Co-operative organizations are well developed in the province,

co-operative credit banks having arisen at a fairly early date out of a system of co-operative grain-stores. There were 93 Raiffeisen societies in the province in 1911.

Trade unions had been little developed until recent years, only 6 per cent. of the workers being in unions in 1897. But in 1914 the figure had risen to 22 per cent., about 14 per cent. of the miners being then members of unions, and about half the textile workers.

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### MAPS

Austrian Silesia is covered by two sheets (M. 33 Wien, M. 34 Krakau ; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' Map, published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

For Ethnography, see note on Maps in *Austria, &c*. (No. 1 of this series), p. 28.

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## I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE Bukovina is in the extreme east of the Austrian Empire. It lies south-east of Galicia, between  $47^{\circ} 12'$  and  $48^{\circ} 40'$  north latitude and  $24^{\circ} 55'$  and  $26^{\circ} 31'$  east longitude, and has an area of 10,441 sq. km. (about 4,030 sq. miles), or roughly two-thirds that of Yorkshire.

On the north and north-west the Bukovina marches with Galicia. Elsewhere its boundaries are those of Austria, touching on the south-west on Hungary, on the south-east on Rumania, on the east on Rumania and Bessarabia.

The Galician boundary is for the most part well defined: it ascends the Dniester for some 35 miles, thence strikes south along an arbitrary line to the junction of the Czeremosz with the Pruth, ascends the former river to the source of the Bialy Czeremosz on the north-western slopes of the Carpathians, and so gains the Hungarian frontier.

The boundary between the Bukovina and Hungary is much broken, but follows in parts the courses of the Cibo, the Golden Bistritz, and the Tesna, and in part the watershed of the Dorna. The same applies to that which in the south divides the Bukovina from Rumania, which follows for some distance the courses of the Neagra and the Golden Bistritz, in part the watershed of the Sucha, crosses the Moldova at Kornoluncze, and reaches the Suczawa just above its junction with the Sereth.

The Suczawa, the Sereth, and the Pruth all play a



part in determining the eastern boundary, which between these rivers follows minor topographical features. Between the Pruth and the Dniester the Bukovina-Bessarabia boundary is marked partly by the Rakitna, partly by a smaller stream and some intervening hills.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

The Bukovina is a highland, rising in terraces from the north-east to the south-west. It falls naturally into two parts, a mountain region and a hill region, the division being clearly marked by a line running roughly from Wiznitz on the Czeremosz to Gurahumora on the Moldova. To the south-west of this line is a complicated system of densely-wooded mountains of sandstone formation, the ridges running from north-west to south-east. The valleys are steep and narrow, sometimes opening out into alluvial flats where cultivation is possible. In the south-west, in the neighbourhood of the Dorna and the Golden Bistritz, the mountains reach an average height of over 1,500 ft., Giumalaul (6,100 ft., 1,859 m.) being the highest point in the Bukovina. These mountains form part of the mass of the Wooded Carpathians, and fill all the space between the Golden Bistritz and the Suczawa, the central point of the space being formed by the Luczyna Mountains. This group contains the sources of the Czeremosz, the Suczawa, the Moldova, and the Golden Bistritz, and is thus the main watershed of the country. The mountains in the extreme south-west of the Bukovina are spurs of the Kelemen group.

The hill region of the Bukovina consists of gentle, rolling ridges of limestone and clay rising to some 1,650 ft. It is watered by the Pruth, the Sereth, the Suczawa, and the Moldova, which flow at an approximate height of 650 ft., and here make great curves to the south-east. The Suczawa, the largest of these rivers, divides the Bukovina into two almost equal parts. The

valley bottoms are flat and open, while the higher regions have to a great extent been cleared of their woods, except on the steepest slopes, and the land has been ploughed.

The mountain region of the Bukovina is of little value for cultivation, but, in addition to its extensive forests, provides good summer pasture for numbers of cattle. The soil of the hill region consists largely of loess or of alluvial deposits ; it is therefore fertile and well suited for cultivation, which is being rapidly developed. The most fertile region, containing some two-thirds of the agricultural land of the Bukovina, lies between the Pruth and the Dniester. Fertility decreases between the Pruth and the Sereth, and the hill region on both sides of the Suczawa is the poorest part of the province, wheat being grown only in very small quantities. On the other hand, the region south and east of Suczawa is very rich. Floods are a hindrance to agriculture in many valleys. The Bukovina is plentifully supplied with water, except in the district to the south of Suczawa and south-west of Bossancze, where rain-water cisterns are necessary both for man and beast.

### *River System*

With the exception of a few small streams in the north, which are tributaries of the Dniester, all the rivers of the Bukovina belong to the Danube system, and flow to the Moldavian-Bessarabian plain. The southern rivers—the Czeremosz (an affluent of the Pruth) and the Sereth, with its tributaries the Suczawa, the Moldova, and the Golden Bistritz—run in roughly parallel courses, and take their rise within the Bukovina in the neighbourhood of the Luczyna Mountains. Only the Dniester and the Golden Bistritz have well-defined rocky beds ; the other rivers divide into arms round islands in broad alluvial valleys as soon as they emerge from the mountains, often changing their courses, and causing serious damage by floods.

As has been said above, the Dniester forms the

northern boundary of the Bukovina as far as Onut, where it is some 270 yds. wide. Its depth varies from 2 to  $6\frac{1}{2}$  ft., and its banks are sometimes nearly 500 ft. high. Its bed is rocky, but contains in places a number of difficult sandbanks. Hence, though navigable by small boats, it is chiefly used by rafts.

The Pruth, one of the largest tributaries of the Danube, flows right across the country at its narrowest part, parallel with the Dniester, through a valley which is wide and open to the north, but on the south merges into a mountainous district. The Czeremosz, formed by the junction of the Bialy Czeremosz (which, like the main stream itself, is a boundary-river of the Bukovina) and the Czarny Czeremosz, is its most important tributary, and has the Perkalab as its affluent on the left bank. The Sereth, another left-bank tributary of the Danube, rises in the western mountains near the Szurdyn Pass, on the opposite side of the watershed to the Suczawa, and flows in a course which curves from north-east to south-east right through the Bukovina, whose borders it leaves not far below the town of Sereth.

The three remaining important rivers of the Bukovina—the Suczawa, the Moldova, and the Golden Bistritz—are all right-bank tributaries of the Sereth, though they join that stream outside the borders of the province. Of these tributaries, the Suczawa rises near the Iswor Pass and opens out below Straza to water the largest piece of open ground in the country; the Moldova, whose course lies through deep valleys, receives two important affluents, the Sucha on the right bank and the Moldawitza on the left; and the Golden Bistritz rises in Transylvania, entering the Bukovina at an altitude of 3,172 ft., and receives the Dorna on the right bank and the Cibo on the left.

The Dniester is the only river in the Bukovina which is navigable otherwise than by rafts. The water in the Sereth, the Suczawa, and the Moldova is always sufficient for rafts, but their streams are not regulated and sandbanks are numerous.

## (3) CLIMATE

The climate of the Bukovina is severe and thoroughly continental. The eastern regions are characterized by violent windstorms, which cause sudden variations in the temperature amounting to as much as 64° F. (18° C.). The rate of humidity is comparatively low and the climate in general approximates to that of Russia. In the mountain region the frost continues on an average from September 1 to June 10; in the hill district from October 1 to May 20. July is the hottest month, January the coldest. The following table shows the difference in average temperature between the mountain region and the hill region:

	<i>Winter.</i>	<i>Spring.</i>	<i>Summer.</i>	<i>Autumn.</i>
Hill Region	23° F. (−5° C.)	48° F. (9° C.)	66° F. (19° C.)	46° F. (8° C.)
Mountain Region	21° F. (−6° C.)	45° F. (7° C.)	61° F. (16° C.)	43° F. (6° C.)

Czernowitz in the north and Suczawa in the south both have the same average summer temperature of 66° F. (19° C.); but in winter Czernowitz averages 25° F. (−4° C.), and Suczawa 28° F. (−2° C.).

The annual rainfall in the mountains often exceeds 33·5 in. (850 mm.); in the hills it is often under 21·7 in. (550 mm.). The valleys of the Pruth and the Dniester have the lowest rainfall. June and July are the wettest months, and January is the driest. Snow lies everywhere between November and April; it falls most heavily in the latter month and is deepest in the neighbourhood of the sources of the Suczawa. There is considerable cloud throughout the year.

The west wind is the commonest, both in summer and winter, whilst in the spring westerly and northerly winds prevail. Southerly and westerly winds bring a high temperature, heavy cloud and rain, and low pressure, whereas northerly and easterly winds bring low temperatures, clearer weather, less rainfall, and higher pressure.



#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate of the Bukovina, though severe, is healthy and hardening. The people still rely to a great extent upon herbs and spells, which are generally administered by old women, in cases of illness. Only in the last extremity do they call in doctors, of whom there are few in the country. Too much reliance cannot therefore be placed upon the official statistics of the causes of death. In 1910, 13 per 1,000 of the deaths were ascribed to congenital weakness, 70 per 1,000 to tuberculosis, and 90 per 1,000 to other lung troubles. Diarrhoea accounts for another 20-40 per 1,000, and scarlet fever and measles are also important causes of mortality. The Lipovans, whose religion binds them to rely on prayer alone in time of sickness, are a serious danger during an epidemic. The rate of infant mortality in the last decade was 240·3 per 1,000 births. The very high death-rate among the gipsies is accompanied by an equally high birth-rate.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The Bukovina lies on the great highway of migration from east to west, and is consequently inhabited by a strange mixture of races, even at the present day. Among them it is possible to find traces of earlier peoples who have disappeared, passed on, or been absorbed.

The Rumanians, who numbered 273,254, or 34 per cent. of the population, at the last census, have a majority in the south, south-west, the centre, and part of the east of the Bukovina. They are most numerous on the middle Sereth and in the Suczawa valley, where, excluding a few isolated islands, over 75 per cent. of the population is Rumanian. On the Moldova the position of the Rumanians is hardly less strong. North of the Sereth they rapidly diminish in numbers, and still farther north are only found in a few villages; but they are found scattered throughout the country, and the greater part of the nobility and of the well-to-do

classes in the towns are Rumanian. How or whence they entered the Bukovina is uncertain, but they are true members of the Rumanian people, speaking the *Limba româna*, which is of Latin origin. The majority belong to the Orthodox Church, and there are a very few Uniats among them.

The Ruthenians or Little Russians in 1910 numbered 305,100, or 38 per cent. of the population. With them are included the Hutsulians, who speak their language, though there are grounds for believing that they are of different, possibly of Scythian, origin. The Ruthenians form a solid mass in the north and west, but they are also found almost everywhere among the Rumanians, notably along the lower Sereth. The country round the sources of the Czeremosz, the Suczawa, the Moldova, and the Moldawitza, as well as the whole north-western mountain region, is inhabited by the Hutsulians. The Ruthenians, who speak Little Russian (or rather the dialect of it known as Red Russian), have dwelt in the Bukovina from a very early date, and a number of them have probably been assimilated by the Rumanians. The Ruthenian element predominates among the lower classes; they are mostly members of the Orthodox Church.

The Germans in the Bukovina in 1910 numbered 168,851, or 21 per cent. of the population, if we include the 102,919 Jews, who are all Germans. They have an influence out of proportion to their numbers, as it was they who colonized and civilized the country. German is still the language of culture and the official tongue. The Austrian occupation has resulted in a large influx of soldiers and officials, with the result that there is now hardly a village which does not contain a German. They are most numerous along the middle Suczawa and in the towns and mining regions of the south-west, but there are also a number of German agricultural colonies in the hill regions. Most of them are Roman Catholics, but at Alt Fratautz, near the Sereth, and Badautz, near Radautz, over 75 per cent. of the population is Lutheran. In the country districts the Germans

preserve an attitude of racial superiority, holding aloof from the Rumanians; but in the towns they tend to drift with the tide, using Ruthenian or Rumanian for business purposes.

The Jews are found in compact masses only in Wiżnitz, on the Czeremosz, where they form three-quarters of the population, and Sadagóra, which lies to the north of the Pruth, but there are also many in Czernowitz and Suczawa. Elsewhere they constitute some 5 to 10 per cent. of the inhabitants.

The Magyars in the Bukovina number about 10,000, but their numbers are diminishing. There are a few Magyar colonies near Badautz, and one at Josseffalva in the south, but elsewhere they are not numerous. They are all Roman Catholics, and work as farmers or market-gardeners.

There are 36,000 Poles, chiefly living in the towns. The district of the Plesch is entirely Polish, and in Neusolonetz the Poles number 78 per cent. They are all Roman Catholics, and generally retain their sense of nationality.

Most of the 3,000 Lipovans live in Fontina-alba and Klimoutz outside Sereth, but there are a few near the town of Suczawa and at Lukowica, near Czernowitz. They are Great Russians, belonging to the old Russian Church, and speak Great Russian. They keep their traditional costume, and their diet is largely vegetarian, while they do not touch alcohol or tobacco. They are market-gardeners, bee-masters, and fruit-growers. Physically, they are a fine people, and as their religion forbids them to have intercourse with strangers they preserve their race absolutely pure.

Gipsies are found all over the Bukovina, especially among the Rumanians. The early regulations against vagabonds were so severe that they are now virtually all settled, forming considerable colonies in many villages, many of them working as smiths. They are nominally members of the Orthodox Church, but their religion is said not to go much beyond making the sign of the cross. They speak their own language



among themselves, though in a very corrupt form ; but otherwise they use Rumanian or Little Russian.

The 657 Armenians, 311 of whom live in Czernowitz and 200 in Suczawa, are an interesting ethnological feature of the Bukovina. Those in Suczawa are Uniats, the others mostly Orthodox. They speak Armenian among themselves, but also use Rumanian or German. They nearly all belong to the upper ranks of society, and are traders, officials, or landowners. Their honesty, hospitality, and courtesy make them very popular.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

The population, according to the census of 1910, was 801,364, and was estimated at 818,328 in 1913. It is naturally most dense in the fertile valleys of the rivers flowing through the hill region, notably those of the Pruth, the Sereth, and the lower Suczawa, where it often exceeds 300 to the square mile. There are also comparatively well-populated centres in the north and north-west. Kimpolung is the largest settlement within the mountain district, where the inhabitants are very scanty. The number of inhabitants per square mile in the Bukovina was 198 in 1910.

### *Towns and Villages*

Czernowitz, with a population, including suburbs, of over 87,000, one-third of whom are Jews, is much the most important town in the Bukovina, of which it is the capital. It lies on the right bank of the Pruth, over which at this point there are two bridges. The town, which is modern, is the seat of the Orthodox Metropolitan of the Bukovina and of the German University.

Other towns are Radautz (16,535), an important agricultural centre on the Suczawa plain and the most German town in the Bukovina ; Suczawa (11,401), a neatly laid-out town on the same river ; Sereth (7,948),



the oldest settlement in the land, on the right bank of the Sereth ; and Kimpolung (8,748), on the upper Moldova, which owes its importance to the traffic over the Mesticanesti Pass. Wiźnitz (5,052), with a largely Jewish population, on the Czeremosz, and Berhometh (7,309), on the Sereth, are the chief centres in the north-west. Storożynetz (10,242), on the Sereth, and Bojan (7,468), on the Pruth, may also be mentioned.

### *Movement*

The birth-rate in the Bukovina is 42·3 per 1,000 inhabitants. The illegitimate births number 107 per 1,000 births. Between 1900 and 1910 the excess of births over deaths was 14·39 per cent., the loss by emigration being 4·82 per cent. The net increase of population was thus 9·57 per cent., as compared with 12·93 and 13·1 respectively in the previous decades. The emigration of Germans in considerable numbers to America did not begin till the present century.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1769-74. Russo-Turkish War.
- 1772. First Partition of Poland.
- 1774. Austria claims northern Moldavia.
- 1775-6. Boundaries settled by Conventions.
- 1786-90. The Bukovina incorporated for administrative purposes with Galicia.
- 1790. The Bukovina declared an autonomous province.
- 1817. Once more included in Galicia.
- 1849. The Bukovina created an autonomous duchy as an Austrian Crown-land.
- 1864. Rumanian Metropolitanate proclaimed at Synod of Karlowitz : the Bukovina excluded.
- 1873. Churches of the Bukovina and Dalmatia united under one Metropolitan.

#### (1) *Origins*

THE Bukovina has been described as a 'rendezvous' of peoples, so many races have in turn occupied the forest lands of this district, which lie about the head-waters of the Sereth, the Pruth, and the Moldova. In the early part of the fourteenth century the Bukovina formed part of the Voivodate of Moldavia, established by the Vlachs or Rumans who migrated from the Máramaros district of Hungary. Compact bodies of Rumanians appear to have settled along the eastern slopes of the Carpathians, where Little Russians or Ruthenes were already established, while the plains were still held by various Tatar tribes who were not expelled until the second half of the fourteenth century. In 1372 the Emperor recognized Louis of Hungary as overlord of Moldavia; but the King of Poland disputed his claims, and in the first half of the fifteenth century the Voivodes did homage to him. Under Stephen the Great (1457-1504) Moldavia regained its independence,

and he inflicted severe defeats on both Poles and Turks; under his successors, however, Moldavia became tributary to the Turks, who began to plant fortresses in the country. The Rumanian principalities, hard pressed by Poles and Turks, invoked in turn the protection of the Emperor and the Tsar of Russia; and the eighteenth century found the Bukovina a bone of contention between these Powers and the Turks.

### (2) *Annexation by Austria*

Two events in the latter half of the eighteenth century, the Russo-Turkish War (1769-74) and the First Partition of Poland (1772), helped to decide the fate of the Bukovina.

After the conclusion of peace between Russia and Turkey (at Kuchuk Kainarji), when it became evident that Turkey could no longer retain the Rumanian Principalities, Austria put forward its claim to the northern part of Moldavia. This was based on (1) the need for settlement of the old disputes concerning the frontier, (2) the desire for a 'cordon sanitaire' against the plague, and (3) the assertion that the territory had been originally usurped by Turkey. Simultaneously with the diplomatic introduction of the claim the Imperial troops occupied various points in northern Moldavia.

Originally the frontier proposed by Austria followed a line running from Chotin to Czernowitz across the Bukovina forest; but in March 1775 the order was given to leave an 'undetermined frontier'. The protests of the ruling prince and of the Moldavian boyars were passed over, with the intimation that the question was one to be settled by Austria with the Porte alone; the latter, however, was less amenable than had been expected, because it feared internal disturbances and hoped for external support from France and Prussia.

Eventually, however, Austria secured the Convention of May 7, 1775, by which the lands contained by 'the Dnjestr, the borders of Pokuta, Hungary, and

Transylvania', were surrendered to it, in order to facilitate communication between Transylvania and Galicia. This district was one of the most richly wooded of the Moldavian provinces, and contained the ancient capital Suczawa and the town of Czernowitz. The exact limits were to be determined according to a fabricated Austrian map which the Porte had been induced to adopt, and which represented the territory in question—to quote an Austrian statement—as a strip of land with 'three or four market towns and eleven villages, the rest consisting of forest and rugged land'.

The final Convention of May 12, 1776, ceded to Austria a territory of 4,035 square miles, with a population of 70,000 inhabitants. Maria Theresa did not fail to shed a tear over these 'Moldavian affairs . . . with regard to which we are totally in the wrong. . . . I must confess I do not know how we shall come out of it, but hardly with honour; and that grieves me beyond expression.'

### (3) *Decline of Rumanian Nationality*

*Administration under Austria.*—The territory thus acquired was constituted an autonomous province, under the name 'Bukovina', and placed for the time being under a military administration which, however, retained Rumanian as the official language. When this administration came to an end, the Bukovina was from 1786 to 1790 incorporated with Galicia; its autonomy was, however, restored by an Imperial patent dated September 19, 1790, which decreed that 'Bukovina shall, under this name, be always considered and treated as an autonomous province with special estates'. At the close of the Napoleonic wars, Austria reverted to the plan of uniting the Bukovina for purposes of administration with Galicia.

When Austria entered into possession in 1777, the country was almost denuded of population (this having sunk to about 70,000); and immigration from the adjacent territories was encouraged. This brought numbers of Ruthenes from Galicia and Rumanians from



Hungary and Transylvania, together with a smaller infusion of Magyars, Poles, and Germans, to reinforce the mixed population of Rumanians and Ruthenes already in possession.

*Reorganization of the Church.*—There had not, so far, been any separate organization for the province; and the only organized ecclesiastical body was the national, i. e. Orthodox Church, which had been established since the fifteenth century under a national Metropolitan at Suczawa, with a suffragan bishop at Radautz. The new Government proceeded at once to the reorganization of this body, with the view (as the Rumanian nationalists maintain) of destroying the connexion between the Bukovina and Moldavia. Without consultation with the Patriarch, the Austrian authorities created the new diocese of the Bukovina; and a new Constitution was elaborated for its government without reference to the ecclesiastical authorities, while at the same time the estates held by the Church in Moldavia were renounced. The large number of monasteries of the Order of St. Basil in the Bukovina were reduced to three, and their property passed (May 1785) into the hands of the civil administration. An Imperial decree (1786) regularized the status of the Church, and about half of the existing parishes were suppressed. The bishop was provided with a Consistory, of which half the members were laymen; and the Emperor became patron of the whole Church.

*Changes in the Population.*—Rumanian nationality also suffered under the new régime in regard to the composition of its population. Many of its leaders, the boyars, abandoned the province and withdrew to Jassy; and these were followed later by many members of the teaching profession.

Those boyars who remained were won over to the administration by a lavish distribution of titles, while their children were educated in the German schools and became willing functionaries of the new Government. Commerce and farming passed into the hands of foreigners, chiefly Jews from Galicia; and, as has been

pointed out, the immigration of Poles, Germans, and Ruthenes was encouraged.

Although the Ruthenes submitted to the Orthodox Church, and thus thwarted the aims of Catholic propaganda, their continued influx gradually reduced the numerical superiority originally possessed by the Rumanians. A document of 1843 recognized Ruthenian as being with Rumanian 'the language of the people and of the Church in Bukovina'.

#### (4) *Revival of Rumanian Nationality*

*Influence of Rumania.*—The Bukovina shared to some extent in the national movement of the nineteenth century which was developing in the Rumanian as in other countries. A certain measure of intercourse had persisted between the boyars who had emigrated and those who had remained in the annexed territory; and this facilitated the penetration into the Bukovina of the cultural renaissance which flourished in Rumania after the Peace of Adrianople (1829).

A certain number of young nobles, especially those of the Hurmuzaki family, although educated at Lemberg and at Vienna, took up the old Rumanian traditions with enthusiasm, and asserted the rights of the Rumanian population to supremacy in an autonomous Bukovina. Like other national movements among the Rumanians, this also aimed, as an ideal, at the complete reunion of their race, and emphasized the bonds which united them to the Rumanians in the Principalities and in Hungary. The loyalty which the Rumanian upper class felt towards the Habsburgs, together no doubt with their distrust of the Slav peoples by whom they were surrounded, made them, however, look rather to union within the frontiers of the Austrian Monarchy.

*The Revolutionary Movement of 1848.*—The movement took a more positive aspect in 1848, when there were revolutionary outbreaks in Moldavia and Wallachia. In that year the leaders of an abortive rising at Jassy, including men who subsequently shaped

Rumania, like Cogălniceanu, the poet Alexandri, and the future ruler of the United Principalities, Cuza, were exiled, and they found a welcome refuge at the seat of the Hurmuzaki family in the Bukovina.

*The Church Question.*—Under their influence, the head of the Hurmuzaki family called together in Czernowitz a meeting of the Rumanian clerics, and induced them to demand the autonomous administration of the Orthodox Church, a yearly assembly of all the estates, the Rumanization of the schools and of the administration—in short, complete administrative, political, and judicial autonomy, such as had been guaranteed at the time of the annexation. But beyond these local demands there was expressed a further desire more significantly national, namely, that all members of the Rumanian Orthodox Church of Austria and Hungary should be placed under one ecclesiastical authority.

This programme was submitted to the Emperor in June 1848. Under the pressure of circumstances the Imperial Government recognized the Rumanian nationality, admitted the introduction of Rumanian in the schools, transferred to the Consistory of Czernowitz the educational control hitherto exercised by that of Lemberg, and, finally, by a new Constitution, created in March 1849 the autonomous duchy of the Bukovina as an Austrian Crown-land. In a memorandum presented to the Congress at Olmütz in February, the Rumanian leaders, having failed to secure the creation of a duchy embracing all the Rumanians of the Monarchy, restricted their demand to the ecclesiastical union; but they persisted in this through the period of reaction—during which there was for a time (1859–60) again a question of incorporation with Galicia.

On the death of the head of the Orthodox Serbian Church, who had opposed Rumanian ecclesiastical independence, the Emperor approved (June 15, 1863), the principle of a Rumanian Metropolitanate. In 1864 a synod met at Karlowitz to proclaim separation from the Serbian Church; but the new Metropolitanate



at Czernowitz included only the Rumanians of Transylvania and Hungary. The national party in the Bukovina ascribed this result to the intrigues of the authorities and the jealousy of the higher clerics; after the accession of Prince Carol to the throne of Rumania (1866), and in view of the imminent incorporation of Transylvania with Hungary, the idea of an ecclesiastical union which should include all orthodox Rumanians was finally rejected by the Government.

#### (5) *Reaction in the Bukovina*

*Repressive Measures.*—Henceforward the efforts of the Rumanians of the Bukovina were directed towards furthering the cultural progress of their people, in order to maintain at least their provincial solidarity. The Imperial authority, however, showed little sympathy for these endeavours. Publications inspired by Nationalist principles were suppressed; lectures on Rumanian history were forbidden on the pretext that the society which organized them had not the status of an educational institution; permission for the holding of a national congress was refused, and in December 1869 the Emperor formally reaffirmed his privilege as patron of the Rumanian Church. The National Party, composed of forty to fifty landowners and as many officials and members of the liberal professions, had no power of resistance, being without contact with the rural proletariat, and without the support of a national middle class. The younger and more spirited intellectuals risen from below often preferred to emigrate to Rumania.

*Evidence of National Feeling.*—There were sporadic assertions of the national spirit, as for instance the assembly of about 2,000 persons, including, for the first time, members of the peasantry, which met in Czernowitz (June 1870) to proclaim the national character and legal rights of the Church of the Bukovina; or the festivities which took place in August 1871, on the initiative of a group of students and with the concurrence of many notable personages from



Rumania, on the occasion of the tercentenary of the foundation of the monastery at Putna by the Moldavian hero, Stephen the Great. But such incidents only stimulated reaction. In January 1873, in order to accentuate the distinction between the Church of the Bukovina and that of Rumania, the Imperial Government, without any reference to the respective populations, and without heeding the protests of public opinion and of the Churches, decided upon the fantastic measure of uniting the Churches of the Bukovina and Dalmatia under one Metropolitan. Two years later, on the occasion of the anniversary of the annexation of the Bukovina, Czernowitz received the gift of a German University, which further promoted the policy of denationalizing the Rumanian youth.

That policy was largely successful, at any rate in so far as the upper class was concerned. But the strenuous political agitation organized by the Rumanians of Hungary called forth an echo in the Bukovina among circles more democratic in origin, action, and purpose. In 1891 a political journal made its appearance; and early in 1892 the constitution of a compact national party, which adopted the name 'Concordia', was announced, to represent 'the solidarity of all the Rumanians of Bukovina in political, national, and ecclesiastical matters'. While insisting, on the one hand, upon the autonomy and historical individuality of the Bukovina, and upon the right to a national cultural development, the new leaders reiterated their loyalty to the Habsburg monarchy. This movement, however, never realized the aspirations of Rumanian nationality; and the field was left open for the policy of the authorities which was directed rather to the encouragement of other elements in the population.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) RELIGIOUS

WHILE the Rumanians, who number some 273,000, are certainly the predominant race in the Bukovina, they are not as numerous as the Ruthenes, who with a population of 305,000 form 38 per cent. of the whole population. They occupy the northern and eastern parts of the province and have pushed up the valley of the Sereth as far as the head of the Moldova, where they form a wedge between the Rumanians and the north-eastern wing of the Hungarians. Their nobles have adopted German culture and have ceased in any sense to be leaders of the mass of the Ruthene people. The teachers and priests are generally educated in the excellent German seminaries and training-schools, and, not knowing where they may be called upon to work, make themselves proficient in both the Rumanian and Ruthenian languages. Although there is some race hostility between the two leading peoples of the Bukovina, this feeling is not embittered by religious differences. Both belong to the Orthodox Church, only a small number of the Ruthenes (26,000) being members of the Uniat Church of Galicia.

The Metropolitans have generally been chosen from among the Rumanian ecclesiastics, but they govern with a Consistory of Rumanian and Ruthenian clerics; all their decisions have to be sanctioned by the Imperial authorities and they have no share whatsoever in the administration of the extensive properties of the Church. The clergy receive their stipends from the 'Fund for the Religious' founded in 1782.

According to the census of 1910,<sup>1</sup> out of a total

<sup>1</sup> *Oesterreichisches statistisches Handbuch*, 1912.

population of 801,364 the Orthodox Church claimed 68·4 of the population, 15·67 are assigned to the Catholic Church, 2·56 to the Evangelical, and 12·86 are registered as Jews.

The Roman Catholic Church, which owing to its active missionary efforts has made considerable progress in recent years, is chiefly supported by the Polish population together with the non-Jewish elements among the Germans. These last are found in greatest numbers in the towns, where much of the trade and industry is under their direction; in Czernowitz there are 41,000 Germans, 28,000 of whom are Jews. Many of the Jews have, however, also settled on the land as farmers.

## (2) POLITICAL

Since 1849 the Bukovina has been an autonomous duchy divided into nine districts and one autonomous municipality, Czernowitz, which is also the seat of the provincial Government. The Diet, created by the Constitution of 1861,<sup>1</sup> is composed of 31 members; the Metropolitan and the rector of the University—the latter since 1875—sitting *ex officio*. The great landowners elect 10 members, the towns 3, the Chamber of Trade and Commerce 2, and the rural districts 12. The Bukovina sends 14 members to the Reichsrat. The judiciary is under the authority of the Provincial High Court at Lemberg, and there are in the Bukovina one Provincial and 17 District Courts. The language of administration is German, but Rumanian and Ruthenian are recognized as in use (*landesüblich*) in the country.

## (3) EDUCATIONAL

With the exception of Dalmatia, the Bukovina shows the lowest percentage of literates in the Dual Monarchy, 24·55 per cent. for men and 16·9 per cent. for women. In 1911 there were in existence 531 elementary schools, in 216 of which instruction was given in Ruthenian,

<sup>1</sup> The Patent, see *Austria*, No. 1 of this series, p. 8.

in 179 in Rumanian, in 82 in German, and in the others in two or more of the languages of the district. The low standard of education prevailing among the people is due perhaps not so much to an inadequate supply of vernacular instruction as to the fact that the population is often very scattered and, except among the German communities, is not always anxious to avail itself of educational facilities. In the middle schools, which have 5,600 pupils on the roll, 2,946 are German, 1,194 Ruthenian, and 1,193 Rumanian; and out of 700 pupils in Realschulen only 86 are entered as Rumanian, and no Ruthenians appear on the roll, which is completed by Germans.

There is a University at Czernowitz, largely in German hands, but the Theological (Orthodox) Faculty is frequented by Rumanians and Ruthenians. There are also three Gymnasia at Czernowitz, Radautz, and Suczawa respectively.

In addition Czernowitz possesses an Episcopal Seminary, an Industrial College, an Agricultural College, five Arts and Crafts Schools, a Commercial School, and a Training College for Teachers. The language of instruction in the higher schools is German.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The division of interests between the two predominant races in the Bukovina, together with the Austrian sympathies of the upper classes, have served to check the national movement. Rumanian leaders, who have tried to sow the seeds of an awakening, have been forced by indifference or by persecution to abandon their activity and migrate to Rumania. Dr. Awiel Onciul, a publicist and formerly director of a bank, has recently come forward with proposals which have made Rumanian politics still more stormy. He has abandoned the national for a purely social programme, and has joined with the Ruthenes in a scheme for comprehensive rural and



electoral reform. In return for promises of improvement of their status, he secured the support of many priests and teachers, and acquired a large following among the peasantry, with the result that his party obtained a majority in the assembly and was able to carry through the electoral reform. The outbreak of war did not allow its effects to mature, and it also put an end for the time being to a new national movement which cultural influences from Rumania were initiating among the younger generation.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) Roads

THERE were in the Bukovina in 1912 only 429 kilometres of first-class roads maintained by the State (*Ararialstrassen*), a low total as compared with that in other provinces of the Austrian Empire. Dalmatia, with a slightly larger area, has considerably more than double the length of main roads; while Carniola, whose area is almost exactly equal to that of the Bukovina, has 603 kilometres. On the other hand, the mileage of second-class roads or local roads is proportionately high. As the Bukovina is a poorly developed province, the roads are probably adequate to its needs.

Roads run north and north-west *via* Tarnopol and *via* Kolomea to Lemberg, south-west over the Carpathians into Hungary by two routes, one of which follows the line of the railway, and south-east into Rumania to the valleys of the Pruth and the Sereth.

It may be assumed, however, that many communications were destroyed during the first two years of the war, when the province was the scene of constant fighting, while many new roads and even canals and railways, as to which we have no definite information, may have been constructed. Any estimate of the existing facilities for communication can therefore be only approximate.

#### (b) Rivers and Canals

Before the war, the province possessed no navigable waterways. A proposal for making the River Pruth available for shipping from the Galician to the Rumanian frontier had been adopted by the Imperial Government, but, so far as is known, has not yet been carried

out. The Pruth is navigable throughout its course in Rumania (about 400 miles); and ships and lighters of 600 tons can ascend the river as far as a point opposite Jassy, 150 miles from its junction with the Danube. The cost of the work proposed in the Bukovina was estimated at 3,000,000 kronen, of which the province was to contribute  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. By this means timber, stone, tiles, minerals, cement, gypsum, and other local products could be cheaply conveyed to Rumania, Bessarabia, and the Black Sea. The canalization of that part of the Pruth which flows through the Bukovina will be very important for the future of the province if the proposals for the construction of waterways in Galicia to connect the Vistula and the Dniester are ever carried out. If that part of the German Levant trade which now goes *via* Lemberg, Czernowitz, and Jassy were diverted to waterways north of the Bukovina, the province, which has communication with the west by rail only, would stand in danger of complete isolation.

Most of the main streams, though not navigable for ships, can be used for rafts, and in this way are valuable for the transport of timber to Galatz and the Black Sea.

### (c) *Railways*

The Bukovina is tolerably well served by railways. There are 592 kilometres of line, and the proportion of railway lines to area and population (*viz.* 1 km. per 17.6 sq. km. and per 1,351 inhabitants) compares favourably with other less developed portions of the Austrian Empire. The most important line is that connecting Czernowitz northwards with Galicia and Germany *via* Kolomea, Lemberg, Cracow, Breslau, &c., and southwards through Rumania with Galatz and the Black Sea. Of the total imports into Rumania about 9 per cent. (91,782 tons) go by this route, and of the exports some  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. (146,271 tons).

Of the remaining lines, one leads north to Tarnopol and the other branches off in a westerly direction to the Carpathians. There is a narrow-gauge line which

branches off in a westerly direction from Hadikfalva, a station on the main line between Czernowitz and Suczawa, and which eventually makes a sharp turn to the south, terminating at the foot of the Kirlibaba Pass. A broad-gauge line, farther east, left the main Czernowitz line at Hatna and ran to Dorna Watra, a growing watering-place. During the war, this local line appears to have been carried over the Carpathians and joined up to the Hungarian system. There is also ground for thinking that a line has been carried over the Kirlibaba Pass, either northwards from the Dorna Watra line or southwards from Seletyn. This extension would be of narrow gauge. It is very possible that other lines have been constructed during the war. Before the outbreak of war all the lines were single tracks, but there is a report that the main Czernowitz line and the line to Dorna Watra have since been doubled. All the lines are the property of the Austro-Hungarian Government.

The destruction of railways in this region during the earlier part of the war was enormous. No estimate is available for losses in the Bukovina alone, but a recent Austrian authority estimated that the damage caused by the war to the tracks and rolling stock in Galicia and Bukovina together amounted to nearly 500,000,000 kronen.

#### *(d) Posts and Telegraphs*

Before the war there were in the Bukovina 231 post offices, or one for every 3,469 inhabitants, and 105 telegraph offices.

### (B) INDUSTRY

#### (1) LABOUR

The Bukovina is fairly well populated for its size, having a much higher rate of population to the square kilometre than Dalmatia, Carniola, or any of the mountainous provinces of the Empire. The main occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture, and there



is no deficiency of labour for this purpose. There is some permanent emigration. No recent statistics are available, but at the beginning of the present century the total number of emigrants was about 3,000 yearly. A large proportion of these go to Germany and Hungary. A number of harvesters go into Germany to work for a short time every year.

The agricultural labourers of the Bukovina are of a very primitive type, and most of them are illiterate. Their pay, about 40 to 50 heller for a day of ten hours, is probably the lowest in the Empire. They are usually in the hands of Jew money-lenders, and spend their lives in unsuccessfully trying to work off their debts. They cannot, therefore, afford to be anything but industrious, but until the general level of living is raised, they cannot be expected to appreciate or adopt any improvements in their very primitive agricultural methods.

In comparison with the other less-developed provinces of the Empire, the Bukovina has a fair number of agricultural associations, credit societies, Raiffeisen banks, &c., for there is much enlightened and progressive activity in Czernowitz, the capital. It does not appear, however, that these organizations have as yet succeeded in raising the standard of living.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

### *(a) Products of Commercial Value*

About a quarter of the total area of the Bukovina is under cultivation. The chief crop is maize, and next in order come oats, rye, barley, and wheat, while potatoes are also grown in considerable quantities. Maize is grown chiefly in the low-lying easterly parts of the country; oats and potatoes are mainly cultivated in the higher valleys of the west.

There are practically no products of commercial importance, though there is some exportation of agricultural and dairy produce. A beginning has been made with sugar beet; 2,842 hectares were under cultivation

in 1912, and the yield was 379,510 quintals. This represents a low rate of production per hectare, and the whole output is trifling as compared with that of Bohemia and Moravia, which reaches tens of millions of quintals. The cultivation of tobacco, never considerable, seems to have entirely disappeared. Many parts of the south-east are suitable for vineyards, and the cultivation of the vine is steadily increasing.

The areas occupied by the chief crops in 1912 were as follows :

	<i>Hectares.</i>		<i>Hectares.</i>
Barley . . .	33,593	Oats . . .	46,400
Buckwheat . . .	2,752	Potatoes . . .	37,750
Clover hay . . .	38,425	Pulse . . .	14,023
Flax . . .	2,172	Rye . . .	31,267
Fodder (mixed) . . .	4,699	Sugar-beet . . .	2,842
Hemp . . .	5,453	Swedes, &c. . .	6,580
Maize . . .	62,964	Wheat . . .	22,204

There were also 128,463 hectares of meadow land. The fruit harvest in that year amounted to 131,150 quintals.

The peasants, especially the Ruthenians, who amount to about half the population, undertake cattle-raising, but they show no great care or intelligence, and the accommodation for the cattle is very primitive. Their breeds of cattle are not good, though of late years attempts have been made to improve them by the introduction of fine draught animals from the Alpine regions. Pigs are kept everywhere. There are some rough-fleeced sheep in the mountains, on the Dniester plateau, and on the lower Suczawa. The native horses are sound and strong, and in the mountain districts there is a small, sure-footed breed of eastern origin. Fowls, ducks, and geese are plentiful.

### *(b) Methods of Cultivation*

The soil is fertile, so that, although little manure is used and winter crops are seldom grown, the yield of the staple crops is not much below the average. The German colonists and the model farms of the

Orthodox Church have brought about some improvement in the primitive methods of cultivation, and of late years the Landeskulturverein, which in its origin was mainly a political body representing the landed interests, has taken up practical agriculture and has been responsible for the foundation of Raiffeisen banks, the publication of literature and statistics, and other helpful measures.

The Bukovina is well watered by its rivers, and there is now a certain amount of artificial irrigation. At the request of the local authorities, an extensive scheme for the drainage and irrigation of the country by the regularization of the rivers was devised at the beginning of the present century. In the years before the war, good progress had been made with the regularization of the Pruth and the Moldova, and a good deal of land had been reclaimed from the annual inundations. The cost of the complete scheme was estimated at over 60,000,000 kronen.

### (c) *Forestry*

Over 40 per cent. of the area of the Bukovina is covered with forest, and the timber industry is the most important asset of the province. Of the total afforested area, over half is the property of religious foundations, mainly of the Orthodox Church, and is under State control. Most of the rest forms part of private estates.

The timber industry may be said to have begun in the last century, about 1840, when timber was first floated down to Galatz and Constantinople for ship-building: The Pruth, Sereth, and Bistritz are all used for floating timber. The industry shows every sign of increasing prosperity. There are now a number of important saw-mills established in the country; and the Bukovina Timber Manufacturing Company, which is backed by two important Austrian banks, recently increased its capital from three to five million kronen.

*(d) Land Tenure*

The land is chiefly held either in large estates belonging to the religious foundations and the aristocracy, or to the Jews who have ousted the latter, or else in small holdings by the peasants. Properties of moderate size have almost entirely disappeared. No figures are available, but it would be safe to assume that nearly one-half of the land is held in the form of large estates. The dying-out of the yeoman class aroused anxiety in the Empire; and in 1903 a law was passed forbidding the transfer of agricultural properties of moderate size, provided with a dwelling-house, belonging to one person or to a married couple, in so far as such properties were not feudal or entailed estates.

The land and property are largely mortgaged, but in most cases apparently not above their value.

**(3) FISHERIES**

Between the upper valleys of the Dniester and the Pruth there are a number of natural lakes and ponds, which have long been stocked with fish. The Orthodox Church has been active in organizing the fishing industry, and at the beginning of the century had some 100 to 200 hectares under water, yielding fish to the annual value of some 30,000 kronen. Trout and other species are found.

If the irrigation scheme already referred to were fully carried out, it would involve the construction of large reservoirs, which could be stocked with quantities of fish.

**(4) MINERALS**

The mining industry was very flourishing in the first decade of Austrian control, but of late years has greatly diminished. The extraction of gold from the sands of the Golden Bistritz has been given up as unprofitable. The ironstone industry has been closed



down. The deposits of silver and lead at Kirlibaba and the copper deposits of Luisenthal Pozoritta did not justify further exploitation. The production of brown coal is now negligible.

Almost the only mineral which is now being profitably mined is manganese. Deposits of an average thickness of 2 metres begin in Hungary, enter the Bukovina near Kirlibaba, and thence run into Rumania near Dorna Watra. The chief mine is the Arsita (5 km. south-west of Jakobeny), which was started by local boyars in 1784, but is now the property of the Orthodox Church. There are also scattered surface workings, of which the most important is that called Theresia. The production of manganese in 1912 was 10,944 metric tons, of a value of 135,823 kronen. This output, not in itself considerable, represents almost the whole production of manganese in the Austrian Empire.

There is a small production of sulphur (in 1912, 8,011 metric tons, value 124,167 kronen), which is also important as representing a very large proportion of the total sulphur production of the Empire. The old sulphur pyrites workings at Luisenthal were reopened by order of the military authorities, but no information is available as to the amount of the output.

There is no gap in the continuity of the Galician and Rumanian oil-fields; and from 1885 to 1890 petroleum was worked at Russisch-Moldawitza. It appears, however, that the deposits in the Bukovina are too deep for profitable exploitation.

There are considerable deposits of salt at Kaczyka. The production in 1912 amounted to 5,190 metric tons of salt for human consumption and 670 metric tons of salt for industrial purposes, the total value being 959,865 kronen. This represents an infinitesimal proportion of the total salt production of the Empire.

Deposits of hausmannite, hematite, &c., and lime are found in many localities.

It does not appear that the mineral resources of the Bukovina have as yet been systematically investigated.

## (5) MANUFACTURE

There are no manufactures for export on any scale worthy of mention.

## (6) WATER-POWER

In the present undeveloped state of industry in the province, very little water-power is used, but a considerable quantity will become available if and when the drainage scheme, already referred to, is carried through.

## (C) COMMERCE

*(a) Principal Branches of Trade*

The industries of the province, such as they are, supply domestic needs almost entirely. Besides the saw-mills, already mentioned, there are several breweries and brandy distilleries, and the usual minor industries to meet local requirements.

Certain branches of industry for export have, unfortunately, disappeared. There were paper factories at Radautz and Waszkoutz, and a match factory and mechanical construction workshops at Czernowitz; a glass industry was flourishing in the latter part of the last century.

Home industries, which until comparatively recent times supplied nearly all the needs of the peasants, are still common. The chief of these is weaving. The peasants grow their own flax and provide themselves largely with their own house-linen. The weaving of woollen cloth is also not uncommon.

*(b) Towns and Markets*

The only city of considerable size in the province is Czernowitz (population, 87,113 in 1910), which is a well-built and attractive modern town. It has many elaborate public buildings in the highly decorated modern Viennese style; and the prevailing high level

of civilization is in striking contrast to the primitive and even squalid character of the life in the surrounding country. There is a famous weekly market, which is still an important feature of the economic life of the province. The business community is mainly engaged in the transit trade from Germany and Austria to the Levant, and a large number of banks and forwarding agents have branches in the city. There are several breweries and saw-mills, and some export of agricultural produce is carried on.

Of less importance are Radautz (population, 16,535), an agricultural centre, and Suczawa (population, 11,401), which has one private bank and one or two breweries and saw-mills. For other towns, see above, pp. 9, 10.

*(c) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

There is a Chamber of Commerce in Czernowitz.

*(d) Imports and Exports*

No figures are available for the province as a whole. The exports are negligible, with the exception of timber and a certain amount of agricultural and dairy produce. The export of timber is very considerable. The total export of timber from Austria to Rumania was valued in 1913 at over 18,000,000 kronen, and a large proportion of this must have come from the Bukovina. It is unlikely that any timber is sent from the rest of Austria, as it would have to go by rail, whereas from the Bukovina it can be floated down the rivers.

If the canalization of the Pruth were undertaken, a further export to Rumania of gypsum, cement, &c., would very likely develop.

## (D) FINANCE

### *(1) Public Finance*

The total amount produced by direct taxation in 1911 was 4,186,950 kronen. The fact that this total is about the same as for Carniola, and is larger than

that obtained in most of the less developed provinces of the Empire, is an indication of the value of land and properties in the Bukovina. Indirect taxes on consumption produced 9,382,845 kronen, more than half of which came from the tax on brandy. The local budget of 1910 balanced at 33,470,144 kronen.

## (2) *Banks*

In general the Bukovina is dependent upon credit facilities from outside, but it has two native banks which work on a fair scale.

The Bukovina Bank, Czernowitz, had in 1911 a capital of 4,000,000 kr. and a turnover of 55,000,000 kr. Its operations included loans to communes, loans for railway construction, mortgages, and loans on buildings, as well as general banking business. The bulk of the business was done in mortgages and commercial bills.

The Mortgage Institution of the Bukovina Savings Banks was opened in 1875 to secure the sound investment of savings bank funds. It lends on agricultural property situated in the Bukovina only. Its turnover in 1911 was 4,933,000 kr.

The Austro-Hungarian Bank, Vienna, the Galician Land Credit Bank, Lemberg, the Central Bank of Austrian-German Savings Banks, Vienna, the Anglo-Austrian Bank, Vienna, and the Vienna Bank Union, Vienna, have branches in Czernowitz. Several of these are powerful institutions, and it is reasonable to suppose that the credit facilities required are sufficiently supplied by them.

As elsewhere in Austria, local savings banks are far more popular than the Post Office Savings Bank. The latter had 31,800 depositors in 1911, but the total of their deposits is not recorded. The Bukovina Savings Bank had in 1911 deposits amounting to 21,114,000 kr., and the Suczawa Town Savings Bank deposits amounting to 2,600,000 kr.

Mutual credit associations are numerous. In Czer-



nowitz there are 27 and in Suczawa 6, but very few of them publish figures. They are conducted largely on national lines by Poles, Ruthenians, Germans, or Jews respectively, and are mainly for commercial and industrial credit.

There is little apparent foreign interest or field for foreign investment in the Bukovina, which can offer no attraction outside of agriculture and industry on a small scale.

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## MAPS

Bukovina is covered by two sheets (M. 35 Jitomir, L. 35 Bucuresti; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' Map published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

For ethnography, see note on maps in *Austria*, &c. (No. 1 of this series), p. 28.







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TRANSYLVANIA  
AND THE  
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# I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

## (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

TRANSYLVANIA (Erdély, Siebenbürgen) includes the fifteen Hungarian counties, known officially as Királyhágóntúl, which form the south-eastern corner of the kingdom. The area is 57,243 square kilometres (22,017 square miles). The Banat (Bánság) of Temesvár consists of the three Hungarian counties, Torontál, Temes, Krassó-Szörény, which lie immediately southwest of Transylvania, and are called officially Tisza-Marosszöge.<sup>1</sup> These have an area of 28,040 square kilometres (10,785 square miles). The Banat is roughly half the size of Transylvania, and the two areas together are approximately equal in size to Ireland.

The frontiers are almost entirely natural. The Banat is separated from Serbia by the Danube, and from Rumania by that portion of the Carpathian range known as the Transylvanian Alps; Transylvania marches with Rumania on the south and east along the Carpathians. The limits of these areas within the Hungarian kingdom are also marked by prominent physical features. The Banat is separated from Bács-Bodrog by the Tisza (Theiss), and from Magyaria—the Magyar heart of Hungary—by the Maros. The mountains which separate Transylvania from Magyaria and Ruthenia are only broken by the defile where the Maros emerges from the uplands on to the Alföld and the lowland gap which connects the valleys of the Szamos and the Maros.

The political frontier of Hungary in eastern Tran

<sup>1</sup> This means 'the angle between the Maros and the Tisza', but north of the Maros are two counties (Arad and Csanád) which in the official statistics are included in the Banat;



sylvania lies beyond the water-parting which separates the Hungarian drainage area from that of Rumania ; consequently, the head-waters and upper valleys of the Rumanian streams are in Hungarian territory. Farther south, in addition to small mountain valleys of this character, the valley of the Upper Olt (Oltu) is Transylvanian, although the lower river is the main stream of western Rumania.

Nowhere do the frontiers coincide with linguistic boundaries, for Serbian is spoken on both sides of the Danube, Rumanian on both flanks of the Carpathians and even beyond the northern and western limits of Transylvania.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEMS

### TRANSYLVANIA

Transylvania may be considered as composed of three types of country : the encircling mountain chains, the central plateau, and the level basins in the river valleys.

*Mountain Chains.*—The encircling ranges comprise on the east and south that section of the Carpathians known as the Transylvanian Alps, and elsewhere a number of lesser ranges, such as the Rodna Mountains in the north-east, and the Bihar Mountains in the south-west. Between the latter and the north-western buttress of the Transylvanian Alps the Maros river has cut a defile or water-gate from the central plateau down to the Alföld, the great plain of central Hungary. Parallel to the outer wall of the Carpathians on the east, the Kelemen, Görgény, and Hargitta massifs make a belt of mountainous country which is approximately fifty miles wide. The Bihar and the Carpathians are folded mountains of Alpine character with a highly complicated geological structure. The inner ring is largely volcanic, and ancient lava flows have obtruded westward to form the water-parting between the head-waters of the Maros on the

north and the Olt on the south. The Bihar massif includes limestone and sandstone with considerable volcanic intrusions.

The Transylvanian Alps occasionally reach an altitude of over 8,000 ft. ; the Rodna heights almost attain this elevation, but the remaining peaks vary from 5,000 to 6,500 ft.

*Central Plateau.*—The upland called the Mezöszég in the north-west, and named as a whole the Transylvanian Basin, presents a much eroded surface, with a general slope downwards from east to west. The whole area varies in elevation from 1,300 to 2,000 ft., and is trenched by numerous valleys where the water-level is usually over 3,000 ft. below the level of the adjacent uplands.

There are three outlets for the drainage of Transylvania, the Maros, the Szamos, and the Olt, of which the first is the most important.

*Basins.*—The third type of country depends upon the age of the mountain formations. In four areas the alluvial river flats are of considerable width, namely, the basin of Gyergyó on the Maros, and the basins of Csík, Háromszék, and Fogaras on the Olt.

### THE BANAT

The Banat consists of two sharply-contrasted types of country, the western plains and the eastern mountains.

*The Eastern Mountains.*—The Szemenik and Orsova mountains are a continuation of the Transylvanian Alps, of similar character and origin, and sometimes reach 4,600 feet (1,400 metres).

*The Western Plains.*—The western half of the Banat is a southern continuation of the Alföld, where the level of the land rarely exceeds 330 ft. (100 metres). Farther east the land rises slowly at first and then steeply to the mountains. The main river of the Banat is the Temes. In the north-west the Aranka and farther south the Bega are tributaries of the Tisza

(Theiss), and are entirely rivers of the plain. In the south-east the Karas and the Nera flow from the mountains to the Danube.

### (3) CLIMATE

By comparison with England, winter conditions in the Banat, and to a greater degree in Transylvania, are considerably harsher, since the three coldest months are colder than January in England; on the other hand, the heat of summer is more intense and the hours of summer sunshine are more numerous than in England. The rainfall of the lowlands is like that of the English eastern counties, but the rainfall in the mountains does not reach the intense precipitation which occurs in Wales or western Scotland: it is comparable in quantity with that of the moorlands of Devon and Cornwall.

The climatic conditions produce a broad distinction between the farming of Transylvania and that of the western Banat. The Transylvanian rears animals, especially sheep, while the farmer of the Alföld grows cereals. The early summer rains and the high summer temperatures provide a suitable climate for the growth on the plains of maize and hard wheat, which have a short growing period, and are responsible in a large measure for the excellence of Hungarian flour.

The driest areas are the north-western Banat, the Mezöszég, and the basins of Gyergyó and Csík, where the rainfall is less than 24 in. (660 mm.). The rainfall of the Transylvanian Basin and the western Banat in general is about 26 in. (664 mm.). The rainfall increases generally with the elevation of the land, and exceeds 39 in. (1,000 mm.) at the western end of the Transylvanian Alps, and 47 in. (1,200 mm.) on the top of the Bihar massif, of which the western slopes are the wetter.

### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Conditions of life in the Banat, and even more in Transylvania, compare unfavourably with those to be found in Magyaria.

## (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The test of nationality in Hungary is taken to be the mother tongue. According to the official returns for 1910 the distribution of races (as shown by language) in Transylvania and the Banat was as follows (for further details see Appendix I):

<i>Nationality.</i>	<i>Királyhágóntúl (Transylvania).</i>	<i>Tisza-Maros (Banat).<sup>1</sup></i>
Magyars (including Szekels in Transylvania) . . . .	918,217	474,988
Germans . . . . .	234,085	427,253
Slovaks . . . . .	2,404	44,715
Rumanians (Vlachs). . . .	1,472,021	845,850
Ruthenians . . . . .	1,759	3,188
Croatians . . . . .	523	4,950
Serbs . . . . .	421	290,434
Others : . . . . .	48,937	50,391
	<hr/> 2,678,367	<hr/> 2,141,769

In both regions one-sixth of the non-Magyars know the Magyar speech. In both areas also the Magyars and Germans are relatively more numerous in the towns. Among the eastern mountains there are villages inhabited by Krassovans, who are variously claimed to be Bulgars or Serbs.

In general Magyars inhabit the far east of the country; Rumanians (Vlachs) the south, west, and north; while between is a strip of mixed nationality.

The Magyar boundary, i.e. the line east of which the population is mainly Magyar, runs from Maros-Vásárhely, about the centre of the country, eastward to Gyergyó-Szent-Miklós and the frontier, and again from Maros-Vásárhely south-east to Sepsi-Szent-György, and thence north-east (passing south of Kézdi-Vásárhely) to the frontier.

The Rumanian (Vlach) boundary, i.e. the line west of which the population is mainly Rumanian, runs from

<sup>1</sup> Including the Arad and Usanád; see note on p. 1. But cf. a numeration drawn from another source, below, p. 39.



just west of Brassó (Kronstadt) through Fogaras to Vizakna, thence northward through Nagyenyed to Kolozsvár (Klausenburg), north-east to Besztercze, and then slightly south-east to meet the Magyar boundary north-east of Maros-Vásárhely.

In the heart of Transylvania on the Central Plateau and in the southern portion of the basin of Háromszék, Magyars, Rumanians, and the Germans are mixed, although the villages are, as a rule, inhabited almost entirely by people of one race. Rumanians extend far to the west of Transylvania, and their linguistic boundary lies to the north-east of Arad, across the Alföld.

In the Banat, the eastern mountains are Rumanian, the linguistic boundary following an irregular line just to the east of Versecz and Temesvár. It is not possible to draw a linguistic boundary for any other race, since the plain resembles the central plateau of Transylvania in the confusion of Magyar, German, Serb, Slovak, and Rumanian areas.

Linguistically, no race has a clear title to the western Banat, i.e. the two counties of Torontál and Temes.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

Transylvania contained at the time of the last census 2,678,367 inhabitants, about one-eighth of the population of Hungary. The three counties of the Banat contained 1,582,133 inhabitants,<sup>1</sup> the density of population being slightly greater. In Transylvania one-eighth of the people live in the towns, and in the Banat one-sixth.

In general, the density of the population is comparable with that of Ireland, about 46 per square kilometre (118 per square mile).

In Transylvania the people live mainly in the valleys of the central plateau between the Nagy-Küküllő in the south, and Nagy-Szamos and Kis-Szamos in the north.

<sup>1</sup> The population of Arad and Csanád was 559,636.

Outside this roughly rectangular area there are dense populations in the Háromszék and Fogaras basins, near Vizakna, and along the Maros and its short tributary, the Sztrigi, in the neighbourhood of the water gate. The mountain regions carry a scanty population. The area of densest population usually coincides with the area where the races are mixed.

In the Banat, the areas of dense population are on the plains, and along the main streams. These, also, are regions of mixed nationalities.

In general, therefore, the areas of pure nationality are areas of scanty population, and coincide with the parts of the country where life is rendered harder either by mountains, floods, or poverty of soil.

### *Towns and Villages*

The majority of the people of Transylvania and the Banat live in villages of which the population is usually under 1,000, although in the largest the number may reach 3,000.

In Transylvania, Kolozsvár (Klausenburg), the capital and university town, contains 60,808 inhabitants; the only other municipality is Maros-Vásárhely, with 25,517 inhabitants. In the Banat are three municipalities: Temesvár, 60,000; Versecz, 25,370; and Pancsova, 20,808.

Intermediate in size between the municipalities and the villages there are townships, frequently the administrative centres of counties: for example, Segesvár (Schässburg), 11,517, Erzsébetváros, 4,408, and Medgyes, 8,626, lie on a strip of the Nagy-Küküllő, twenty-five miles in length, and in this stretch of the valley there are also seven villages with a total population of 10,000 people. The strip is typical of the central upland, for the settlements are on the edge of the scarped valley-sides, and are long and narrow.

In the hill country the villages stretch for considerable lengths along the banks of the torrents. The settlements of the Banat Alföld are of an entirely

different character. They are usually square or rectangular in outline, with a plan suggestive of a 'garden city' type of town. All these communities are villages of farmers who have founded their settlement at a convenient centre in order to facilitate defence against an enemy. The settlement centre is extensive enough for the holding of a fair or market. The streets are but sections of the ill-made country roads, dusty in summer and muddy in the rainy season. The houses are separate groups of farmhouses, out-buildings, &c., each in its own plot, which frequently contains its own well.

Since 1850, there has been a distinct movement of the people into the municipalities and townships. Temesvár had quadrupled its population by 1909, Kolozsvár attained a threefold increase by 1901, and Maros-Vásárhely had almost trebled its population by 1910. Lugos doubled the number of its inhabitants in the period 1850-1903, and Nagy-Szeben (Hermannstadt) in the period 1850-1900. Most of the other towns increased in similar fashion.

### *Movement*

The birth-rates differ considerably under rural conditions and in the small towns. In Transylvania the urban rates lie between 26 and 31 per thousand; in the Banat the limits are 24 and 33 per thousand. The rural rates in Transylvania fall between 32 and 37 per thousand, and in the Banat between 28 and 42 per thousand. Birth-rates vary also according to nationality. In the country villages the Magyars are most prolific; then follow the Rumanians (Vlachs) and Germans in Transylvania; and the Serbs, Germans, Rumanians, in the Banat, in the order specified. The rates in the towns vary similarly, except that in the Banat the Serbs are more prolific than the Magyars.

Urban death-rates lie between 22 and 25 per thousand in Transylvania, and between 23 and 30 per thousand in the Banat. Rural rates lie between 22

and 28, and 20 and 33 in the two districts. The highest death-rates occur in Serb communities, next among the Magyars, both in town and country. In the towns the German rate exceeds that of the Rumanians ; in the country this condition is reversed.

The rates of natural increase, i.e. the excess of births over deaths, vary from 1 to 4 per thousand in the towns in the Banat, from 3 to 6 per thousand in the towns of Transylvania, from 8 to 9 per thousand in rural Transylvania, and from 3 to 15 per thousand in the villages of the Banat. These are noteworthy differences, and the order of the races in fertility as measured by this criterion is : Magyar, German, Serb, and Rumanian in the rural districts where the differences are most marked.

The population increases very slowly. In Transylvania the total rate is but 8 per cent. per decade, while in the Banat the increase is less than half this amount. In both alike the increase is so small that the population would not be doubled even after the lapse of a century.



## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### TRANSYLVANIA

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 106 Conquest by the Romans under Trajan.
- 274 Abandonment by the Romans under Aurelian.
- 274-975 Period of Barbarian invasions (Goths, Gepidae, Huns, Avars, Kumans, and Petchenegs).
- 850 (c.) Szekels migrate to Transylvania from Atelqusu and settle.
- 1009-1100 Transylvania occupied by the Magyars.
- 1141-61 'Flandrenses' or 'Saxons' invited by King Géza II of Hungary to colonize Transylvania.
- 1175-1200 Vlachs driven across the Danube from Moesia (Bulgaria) by Byzantines.
- 1211 King Andrew II invites the Teutonic Knights to colonize Eastern Transylvania (Burzenland).
- 1224 Hermann von Salza, Grand Master of Teutonic Knights, makes over their territory to the Papacy.
- 1225 Andrew II, in consequence, expels the Knights, who then conquer and convert Prussia.
- 1241 Invasion of the Mongols.  
Union of the 'three nations', Magyars, Szekels, and Saxons.
- 1526 Battle of Mohács. End of the Jagellon line of kings. The Habsburg dynasty begins under Ferdinand. Two-thirds of Hungary conquered by the Turks.
- 1526-1699 Transylvania under Turkish suzerainty: ruled by princes of the houses of Zapolya, Báthory, Bethlen, Rákóczy, Bocskay, and Apaffi, and a Diet of the 'three nations' (Magyars, Szekels, and Saxons).
- 1526 John Zapolya elected King of Hungary by Magyar nobles.
- 1564 Religious toleration obtained by Unitarians, as well as Calvinists and Lutherans in Transylvania.
- 1683 Turks fail to take Vienna. Decline of Turkish power in Transylvania begins.

- 1691 Leopold I of Austria grants the 'Leopoldine Diploma', guaranteeing the ancient rights and laws of Transylvania, and reuniting it with Hungary.
- 1699 Peace of Carlowitz. Turks agree to cede Transylvania to Hungary, but retain Banat of Temesvár.
- 1703 Transylvanians join in electing Francis Rákóczy II King of Hungary.
- 1703 The Kurucz war begins. Rising of nobles and peasants in support of Rákóczy.
- 1711 Peace of Szatmár. Transylvanians submit to Austrian Emperor.
- 1713 Transylvania completely incorporated with Hungary.
- 1765 The Empress Maria Theresa constitutes Transylvania a *Grossfürstentum* (grand principality).
- 1848 Rising of the Magyars throughout Hungary. Transylvanian Vlachs oppose the Magyars.
- 1849 Failure of the Magyar rising under Kossuth. Transylvania separated from Hungary by Imperial decree, and declared an Austrian Crown land.
- 1860 Transylvania becomes an autonomous province of Austria, with a separate Diet.
- 1863 The Diet at Nagy-Szeben declares Transylvania completely separated from Hungary and united with Austria. The Vlachs recognized as a fourth nation.
- 1865 The Diet at Kolozsvár declares Transylvania united to Hungary.
- 1867 The Compromise between Austria and the Hungarians, giving independence to Hungary and granting Transylvania to Hungary.

### (1) THE FOUR NATIONS

The vital factor in Transylvanian history is the existence side by side, almost from the earliest times, of four nations, the Szekels, the Magyars, the Saxons, and the Vlachs. The Szekels speak Magyar, but all the four nations have maintained their identity, even in districts where the population is mixed. The dates at which they entered the country are obscure and the subject of dispute. The Szekels, who inhabit the north-eastern corner of the country and have defended its marches with gallantry, probably preceded the Magyars, to whom they are closely related. Until the middle of the nineteenth century they formed

a nation with separate rights of self-government and a separate representation in the Transylvanian Diet. The Magyars claim to have conquered the country towards the end of the ninth century. They assert that the previous Daco-Roman inhabitants withdrew to the south of the Danube at the time of the Roman retirement, or else were exterminated by the barbarian tribes advancing from the east and north, and, therefore, that the Vlachs, who are now found north of the Danube, are the descendants of the fugitives who were driven across the Danube from Moesia between 1175 and 1200 by the Byzantine armies and have only entered Transylvania by the permission of the Magyars. The Vlachs themselves, however, maintain that they are the descendants of the Daco-Roman population; they are in fact a Romance-speaking people, identical in race with the Rumanians and frequently called by their name. All that can be said with confidence is that at the time of the Magyar conquest in the ninth century, no Vlach states or independent Vlach tribes or communities were in existence. The first mention of the Vlachs by a Hungarian writer is in 1222, in the charter granted by King Andrew II of Hungary to the Teutonic Knights in connexion with territories on the extreme eastern border of Transylvania.<sup>1</sup>

About the circumstances of the coming of the Saxons there is no serious dispute. They were invited by the Hungarian kings Géza II and Andrew II between the years 1141–1222 to migrate from Flanders and the lower Rhine; and royal charters were issued to them giving them the right to occupy lands and manage their own affairs.

## (2) THE GOVERNMENT OF TRANSYLVANIA TILL 1526

Thus from the time of its foundation Transylvania formed part of the Magyar kingdom of Hungary, but equal privileges were enjoyed by the Saxons and the

<sup>1</sup> See Teutsch, *Geschichte der Siebenbürgener Sachsen*, vol. i, p. 136. The Russian Nestor, however, writing about 1100, speaks of them as resisting the Magyar invaders in the Carpathians.

Szekels ; and these peoples, together with the Magyars, were styled 'ruling nations' and were represented in the Transylvanian Diet. The Vlachs had no share in the government ; and it was only in 1867 that the special privileges of the three ruling nations were abolished.

The Diet dealt with the matters which affected the common interests of the three ruling nations, and the affairs of Transylvania as a whole, in relation to the King of Hungary. But each of the three ruling nations managed its own special affairs in its own particular districts. The Magyar nation governed in the 'county ground' (*Comitatsboden*). The Szekels had a complicated system of tribal or clan government in their corner of the country, while the Saxons governed in the *Königsboden* or *Fundus Regius*, and other territories where Saxons had settled, through their so-called 'Universitas', an autonomous representative body. The Vlachs, though gradually increasing in numbers, were not allowed any share in local government. Their position was, more or less, that of serfs. The three ruling nations, though by no means always on good terms with each other, were always united as against the Vlachs.

The Saxons, Magyars, and Szekels reclaimed the better land from the forests, and cultivated it, sometimes with, and sometimes without, the help of Vlach labourers. The economic progress of the country during the first hundred years of colonization by the Flandrenses, as the Saxons were then called, was very rapid. Towns were built by them which became centres of trade and industry. Hermannstadt (Nagy-Szeben) was the chief of these, but Kronstadt (Brassó), Bistritz (Besztercze), and many other towns also flourished.

The Saxons, however, feared to admit Magyars, and especially Magyar nobles, to live in their towns or districts—partly because the Magyar nobles claimed exemption from taxation, and partly because the Saxons feared their towns might lose their distinctive German character, as in fact happened at Klausenburg (Kolozsvár), where Magyars had been admitted. he



trade guilds refused admittance to any but Saxons, and jealously prevented the exercise of trades by any but members of the guilds. The Mongol invasion of 1241 gave the growth of the Saxon settlements a check, from which they never entirely recovered. The whole of Transylvania was devastated during this period, but the more highly civilized and prosperous Saxons suffered to a greater extent than their more backward, rural neighbours.

### (3) THE DIVISION OF HUNGARY AFTER THE BATTLE OF MOHÁCS, 1526

In 1526 the battle of Mohács decided the fate of the kingdom of Hungary for the next hundred and fifty years. Hungary, except for the narrow strip known as Royal Hungary on the western border adjoining Austria, became part of the Turkish Empire. But, while the plains of Austria-Hungary lost all their liberty and were directly ruled by the Pasha of Buda, Transylvania, partly because of the mountainous nature of the country, and still more by reason of the independent character of the three ruling nations, secured from the Sultan a continuance of her autonomy, under native princes elected from among the great Magyar families of Zapolya, Báthory, Bethlen, Rákóczy, Bocskay, and Apaffi. This was the great period of Transylvanian history. 'Turkish' Hungary was being ruined by the misgovernment of the Pasha of Buda. Royal Hungary tended to become more and more Germanized under the rule of the Habsburgs, who had succeeded to the crown of Hungary on the death, at the battle of Mohács, of Louis, the last of the Kings of Hungary of the Jagellon line. Transylvania alone remained practically free to manage her own internal affairs, almost uninfluenced by foreign rule.

Transylvania, as an autonomous principality under Turkish suzerainty, gradually became, not only the refuge of Magyar nationality, but also the local champion of the Reformation, whose doctrines spread throughout

Hungary, but most rapidly among the three nations of Transylvania. The Vlachs, who all belonged to the Orthodox Church, remained unaffected by the new movement. Calvinism made most progress among the Magyars; Lutheranism and to some extent Unitarianism among the Saxons. The Szekels joined, for a time, a sect known as 'Sabbatarians'. In Turkish Hungary all Christian confessions were immediately allowed equal liberty of worship by the Sultan, but it was not until 1564 that religious toleration prevailed in Transylvania and Royal Hungary. By the Peace of Vienna (June 23, 1606), Stephen Bocskay, who had been elected Prince by the Transylvanians, was recognized by the Emperor Rudolf II as an independent sovereign Prince of Transylvania, which was enlarged by the addition to it of the three counties of Szatmár, Ugocsa, and Bereg. It was a condition of this treaty that all Hungarians should enjoy religious freedom. Among the able princes who were elected to rule Transylvania at this time, none was more remarkable than the Calvinist Gabriel Bethlen (Bethlen Gabor), who ruled from 1613 till 1629, and forced the Emperor Matthias to recognize him officially in 1615. His whole reign was a continuous and successful struggle, not only for the freedom of his principality, but also for the welfare and religious freedom of those Magyars who still remained under the rule of the Emperor. By the Treaty of Nikolsburg in 1621 the Emperor was forced to confirm the Peace of Vienna and to cede to Bethlen Gabor the seven counties of the upper Theiss. Bethlen Gabor and subsequently Rákóczy became the great national heroes, not merely of Transylvania, but of the whole of Hungary.

From 1690, when the Habsburgs began to obtain effective control of Transylvania, the country was, for a time, mainly ruled from Vienna, and the religious troubles began afresh. Religious liberty, which, together with the Constitution and rights of Transylvania, had been guaranteed by the Emperor Leopold in the famous Leopoldine Diploma, was not

respected in practice. In 1703 the rising of the Hungarians under Francis Rákóczy II, who, for a time, held the whole of Transylvania, improved the position of the Protestants; and by the Peace of Szatmár in 1711, when the Transylvanians finally submitted to the Habsburgs, religious liberty was once more granted, and has prevailed since then in Transylvania and the rest of Hungary.

#### (4) THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY AND THE UNIAT CHURCH

The eighteenth century was a period of comparative calm, so far as the internal politics of Transylvania were concerned. Vienna became the centre of influence in all Hungarian affairs, as well as those of Austria. The Habsburg rulers followed a steady policy of Germanization. In 1765 Transylvania was declared an Austrian Crown land by the Empress Maria Theresa. In 1784 the Emperor Joseph II declared German to be thenceforward the official language in Hungary and Transylvania.

The material prosperity of the country began to increase, and a fairly rapid recovery of wealth and prosperity set in with the cessation of the domestic wars. Although Transylvania contributed in men and money to the wars carried on by Austria, the burden was a comparatively light one. The eighteenth century is marked by an important ecclesiastical movement in Transylvania, in consequence of which a great number of the Vlachs, members for the most part up to that time of the Orthodox Church, joined the Church of Rome. This event was the origin of the United Greek or Uniat Church in Transylvania. The union was brought about chiefly by the energy and diplomacy of a Jesuit priest, Gregor Baranyi, who induced the Orthodox Bishop Theodosius to join the Roman Catholic Church in the year 1700. Some 200,000 Vlachs went with their bishop. The Uniat movement had begun as early as the sixteenth century among

the Ruthenes and other Slavs in Poland during the papacy of Clement VII. The union was renewed or confirmed by Pope Paul V, but till the eighteenth century did not affect Transylvania. The Uniat Church of Transylvania recognizes the Papal supremacy and accepts the doctrines of the Catholic Church, but follows the Orthodox Church in using a Greek liturgy, giving communion in both kinds, and allowing a married clergy.<sup>1</sup>

### (5) THE MAGYAR MOVEMENT

The Germanizing policy in Hungary of the Habsburgs, which was acceptable to the Transylvanian Saxons, came at the beginning of the nineteenth century into conflict with Magyar national sentiment. The Magyar movement, which began in the thirties of the nineteenth century, included a demand for the restoration of the kingdom of Hungary, and the reunion of Transylvania with it. In 1848 the Hungarian Diet, which met at Pozsony (Pressburg), passed a resolution incorporating Transylvania with Hungary.<sup>2</sup> In the subsequent war of independence, the Vlachs of Transylvania, like the Saxons, sided with Austria; and the Vlach peasants rose in many parts of the country, and drove out and sometimes massacred their Magyar neighbours.

When the Hungarian national movement had been crushed by the military intervention of Russia, and Austrian rule had been restored, Transylvania was again for a time separated from the rest of Hungary, and by imperial decree created an Austrian Crown land, with a Diet in which the three ruling nations alone were represented. The Vlachs obtained nothing in return for their support of the Austrian cause during the war of independence. It was not until 1863 that, by the Diet held in that year at Nagy-Szeben (Hermannstadt), they were recognized as a fourth nation, entitled to take their place beside the Magyars, Szekels,

<sup>1</sup> *Geschichte der kirchlichen Trennung zwischen Orient und Occident*, by A. Pichler (München, 1868).

<sup>2</sup> The reunion was one of the 'ten points' of the Constitutionalists in 1847.



and Saxons. By the same Diet, Transylvania was declared completely separated from Hungary, and united with Austria. The Hungarians did not recognize the validity of the acts of this Diet. The subsequent Diet of Kolozsvár in 1865 reversed this policy, and declared Transylvania reunited with Hungary.

In the following year the result of the Austro-Prussian War made the restoration of the kingdom of Hungary inevitable; and in 1867 the Compromise between Austria, or rather, the Habsburg dynasty and the Magyar people, was arrived at. This has regulated the relations between them to the present moment. Hungary was granted its 'historic limits', and Transylvania was accordingly included in it.

Under the new Hungarian Constitution, the old autonomy of Transylvania ended. The Transylvanian Magyars, Saxons, and Szekels alike, lost their privileged position as ruling nations in the administration of the country, though the 'Universitas' of the Saxons continued to exist for certain purposes. Political equality was established under the new Constitution; and no race was, as such, to suffer under any disadvantage or disability in future. The Vlachs, in theory at any rate, were placed on an equality with all other inhabitants of Hungary.

#### (6) THE CONDITION OF TRANSYLVANIA SINCE 1867

Under the settlement of 1867 Transylvania was not given any special rights, such, for instance, as those given to Croatia. The Transylvanian Diet ceased to exist; and instead, members for Transylvanian constituencies attend the Hungarian Parliament at Budapest.<sup>1</sup> Local affairs of the counties are in the hands of county assemblies, and those of the towns are managed by municipal councils. The new order vastly reduced the political power of the Saxons, whose numbers were so small—under a quarter of a million—that they counted

<sup>1</sup> Details of the Hungarian Constitution will be found in *Hungary*, No. 1 of this series.

relatively little in comparison with the other races. And, although the franchise provisions favoured them, and although they could, to some extent, influence those Vlachs who had votes, yet, with the growth of Vlach nationalism, even this advantage tended to disappear.

The grant to the Vlachs of the right to take part in the government of the country was, indeed, a definite gain. But they had hoped for a more favourable position than they obtained, and many would probably have preferred to have been attached to the Austrian half of the Dual Monarchy rather than to the Hungarian, for the civil wars of 1848 and 1849 had left behind much bitterness. Social and agrarian causes also contributed to make the Vlach population discontented as time went on.

Vlachs and Saxons alike complain that a policy of excessive Magyarization has been pursued by the central authorities in Budapest, at the instigation of the Government placed in power by the Magyar majority in Parliament. The Magyar view is that the Magyar language has rightly been declared the State language of Hungary; and they maintain that a knowledge of the State language may properly be demanded of all citizens, more especially as it has always been the language of the most numerous and, except during periods of foreign occupation, the dominant race in the kingdom. Until nearly the middle of the nineteenth century the official language in Hungary for many purposes was Latin, which was understood, and often spoken, by nearly all the more cultivated classes. But the lower and middle classes spoke the language of the race to which they belonged, and the bulk of the population was illiterate. With the rise of the feeling of nationalism among the non-Magyar peoples, and the institution of a State system of education, the language question became one of the chief political questions in Transylvania.

The Magyars contend that the use of the Vlach language encourages separatist feeling; and there can

be no doubt that the language question and the education question, with which it is necessarily connected, have, in fact, been used as a means to encourage disloyal agitation. To extreme nationalists the concurrent use, on equal terms, of another language than their own is always unsatisfactory. The inconveniences of carrying on government and business in a bilingual or trilingual state are obvious; but a policy which aimed at the suppression of all but one language would, in Transylvania, with its three races, be unjust and impracticable, and there has been no attempt to suppress the use of any of the three languages. The Hungarian law on the subject seems to embody a reasonable principle of compromise. The 'Law of Equal Rights of Nationalities', XLIV of 1868, in terms provides for the protection of the rights of the non-Magyar speaking races; and this measure of protection is recognized, even by many Nationalists, as fairly adequate. What is complained of is that these provisions are often ignored or evaded in practice. Under them, Magyar is declared to be the State language, and is to be used in Parliament, in the administration of the State, in the law-courts, the county assemblies, and the universities. But, on the other hand, in local affairs, e. g. in the county assemblies, other languages than Magyar may be used; and this is also the case in commercial and other local public business. It is further declared that the fact that a citizen belongs to one of the non-Magyar nationalities shall not be an obstacle to the holding of any office or dignity.

#### (7) THE POSITION OF THE TRANSYLVANIAN SAXONS SINCE 1867

The Act of Union with Hungary in 1868 began the process of destroying the autonomy rights of the Saxons. Matters were at first left in a state of suspense (Law XLI, 1868). Section 11 of that law purported to guarantee the rights and privileges of the Saxon 'Universitas' (except the judicial powers); but, though a law



confirming the rights of the Saxon 'Stühle' (*Sedes*)<sup>1</sup> was promised, it was never enacted. After various measures which greatly diminished the Saxon rights, the worst blow was struck at them by Law XII of 1876, when the counties were redistributed in a manner unfavourable to the Saxons, and all distinctions of administration were abolished. The Saxon 'Universitas' continues to exist, but its powers are restricted to a limited control connected with the administration of its property.<sup>2</sup>

If the Saxons of Transylvania (who number some 234,000 only) were more numerous, there would have been a serious Saxon question, for their special rights have nearly all been taken from them. The destruction of their autonomy, though a mediaeval anachronism, was probably dictated by the desire among the more extreme Magyar nationalists for a state possessing uniform institutions and, if possible, one language. Saxon autonomy stood in the way of both these aims. The fact that the Saxons, better educated and commercially more efficient than the Magyars, cling obstinately to what they assert to be a superior culture and language, only serves to make their claim to autonomy the more obnoxious to their Magyar and Vlach neighbours. The Saxons, both in the towns and in the country, are hard-working and thrifty, and succeed, as a rule, in their endeavours to keep up a fairly high level of comfort. They are, industrially and agriculturally, a valuable element in the country. Although to some extent affected by the Pan-German propaganda, they are not really anxious to be swept into wide Pan-German schemes, or to be treated merely as important outposts of Germany in the east of Europe. They would probably be quite satisfied if they could be left to themselves to live their own national life, which, as they form a fairly compact block, they can defend

<sup>1</sup> The Stühle were the administrative units under the Saxon Constitution.

<sup>2</sup> For further details, see the laws above mentioned, and *Racial Problems in Hungary*, by Scotus Viator (R. W. Seton-Watson). pp. 143-5.



effectively. They have almost all remained Protestants.

#### (8) THE HISTORY OF THE SZEKELS AND THEIR POSITION SINCE 1867

The Szekels, numbering some 500,000, are more than twice as numerous as the Saxons. They are chiefly Roman Catholics. Like the Saxons, they are hard-working and thrifty, but stand on a rather lower educational level. They remain a sturdy and independent race of freemen, as they were when their forefathers settled in the eastern districts of Transylvania. They are to be found chiefly in parts of the counties of Maros-Torda, Csík, Udvarhely, and Háromszék. In early times the Szekels were all freemen, but with the lapse of time a class of chiefs or 'Primores' appears, and later on a serf class. The existence of this serf class was the subject of constant protest in the National Assembly of the Szekels as being contrary to the Constitution. The Szekels have strong political instincts, but the fact that they use the same language as the Magyars makes the loss of a distinct national position more tolerable than in the case of the Saxons.

#### (9) THE TRANSYLVANIAN MAGYARS SINCE 1867

The Magyar population of Transylvania is to be found in the largest numbers in the counties of Kolozs, Maros-Torda, Nagy-Küküllő, and Kis-Küküllő, also in Szolnok-Doboka and scattered through many of the other counties. They number nearly 400,000, and amongst them are to be found most of the county gentry and the nobles. In some places they have occupied what were once Saxon settlements, as in the case of Kolozsvár, the Saxon Klausenburg.

The importance of the Magyars of Transylvania is, like that of the Saxons, not to be measured by mere numbers. Much of the land (both agricultural and forest) belongs to them, and they have played an

important part in the economic development of the country. They take part in the management of all county affairs, and their full share in the national and political life of Hungary. Besides this they give to the Austro-Hungarian army and navy some of the best officers to be found in them.<sup>1</sup>

#### (10) THE VLACHS SINCE 1867

The Vlachs have gained considerably in every way since 1867. They have at last obtained definite political rights, which are, in theory at any rate, equal with those of all other citizens. They have progressed considerably in education, and, wherever the soil is rich, they are fairly prosperous. In the more mountainous districts they remain backward and poor. A section of the Vlach population, which formerly consisted almost entirely of peasants, woodmen, and herdsmen, is gradually entering the professions of the law and education. Others, as heretofore, become priests; but these, both in the Orthodox and the Uniat Churches, are drawn in most cases from among the sons of the clergy, whose families tend to become almost a caste by themselves. In 1910 the Vlach population was 1,472,021, a larger number than that of the other three races taken together.

### THE BANAT

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

Ninth and tenth centuries. Invasion of the Magyars.

Eleventh and twelfth centuries. Colonization of Magyars.

Thirteenth century. The Tatar invasions.

Fourteenth century. Immigration of Serbian refugees after battle of Kossovo.

1404, 1428, 1455, 1464. Charters granted to Serb immigrants by Kings of Hungary.

1463. Unsuccessful attack on Banat by the Turks.

<sup>1</sup> See Kaindl, *Gesch. der Deutschen in den Karpathenländern*, vol. ii, p. 43; Teutsch, *Gesch. der Siebenbürgener Sachsen*, vol. ii, p. 189.

1476. Second unsuccessful attack by the Turks.  
 1552. The Turks conquer the Banat.  
 1690. Invitation of Leopold I to the Serbs to settle in South Hungary, under promise of religious autonomy and certain national privileges.  
 1699. Peace of Karlowitz. Banat retained by Turkey.  
 1718. Peace of Passarowitz. Banat, ceded to Austria, becomes an Austrian Crown land.  
 XVIII century. The era of State colonization.  
 1718. Military administration set up.  
 1718-34. Governorship of Count Claudius Mercy.  
     Great advance in development of the country.  
 1722-6. First Swabian colonization.  
 1737-45. Organized immigration from the upper Rhine, Hesse, the Archbishoprics of Treves, Mainz, and Cologne, the Rhenish Palatinate, and Bavaria.  
 1740. Accession of the Empress Maria Theresa.  
 1751. The Empress Maria Theresa replaces military by civil administration.  
 1752-72. The three colonizations by French-speaking immigrants from Lorraine.  
 1752. Further colonization by Serbs in Nagy-Kikinda district.  
 1779. The Banat again incorporated with Hungary.  
 1848. The Hungarian Revolution.  
     The Banat separated from Hungary and created an Austrian Crown land together with Bács-Bodrog.  
 1849. Part of the Banat included in the Crown land of the 'military frontier'.  
 1860. The Banat and Bács-Bodrog definitely reincorporated with Hungary.  
 1867. The new Hungarian Constitution created by compromise.  
 1872-3. The military frontier districts of the Banat abolished.

### (1) DOMESTIC HISTORY

The Banat of Temesvár, usually called the Banat, has never been an independent political unit, or even enjoyed such autonomy as e.g. Croatia and Transylvania. It formed part of the kingdom of Hungary from the date of the foundation of that State by the invading Magyars in the tenth century; and for the next five centuries it appears to have been inhabited mainly by Magyars and to have been fairly well populated and prosperous. The Kings of Hungary often took up their residence within its borders. With

the advance of the Turks into Europe came the first of the immigrations which have played so large a part in its history. After the battle of Kossovo in 1389 successive bodies of Serbian fugitives sought a refuge here, and obtained charters assuring their position at various dates between 1404 and 1464. Meanwhile the Banat itself became the object of Turkish attacks, the earlier of which (1463 and 1476) were repelled; but after nearly a century of continuous warfare the whole region passed into Turkish hands in 1552. The Peace of Karlowitz in 1699 left the Banat—or Temesköz, as it was then called—a part of the Turkish Empire, but by the Peace of Passarowitz in 1718 it became part of the Habsburg dominions. It was included in the military frontier province which, designed to form a barrier against Turkish inroads, extended from Croatia to Moldavia, and was occupied by colonists who lived under military discipline and held their land on condition of rendering military service, a system of which relics survived so late as the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The newly-acquired territory now received the title of Banat, incorrectly enough, since neither then nor at any other time was it under the government of a Ban. In 1751, by decree of Maria Theresa, civil administration was introduced in all but the border districts, which continued to form part of the military frontier province.

Immediately on the acquisition of the Banat it was placed, together with a part of the Austrian conquests in Serbia, under a highly competent administrator, Count Claudius Mercy, whose governorship lasted from 1718 till his death in 1734. A century and a half of Turkish rule had left the country seriously depopulated; very little land was under cultivation, some of the best was liable to recurring floods, and means of communication were entirely lacking. Mercy initiated a comprehensive scheme of improvement by the construction of dykes, canals, roads, and bridges, and, to provide the requisite labour and also to develop the mining industry, introduced colonists from Tyrol, Styria, Bohemia,



Saxony, and even from Italy and Spain. Only the Germans, however, succeeded in maintaining themselves as a distinct element in addition to the original Serbian, Vlach, and Magyar populations. This period of colonization with a purely economic object lasted only a few years, but the process was resumed in 1737, and vigorously carried on by the State, partly at least in pursuance of a definitely Germanizing policy. Settlers were now brought chiefly from the upper Rhine, Hesse, the Archbishoprics of Treves, Mainz, and Cologne, the Rhenish Palatinate, and Bavaria. Almost all were Catholics, a fact which doubtless reflects the deliberate policy of the Court of Vienna. To this period also belongs the settlement of a considerable French-speaking colony from Alsace and Lorraine, which, though ultimately merged in its German neighbours, retained some traditional knowledge of French till late in the nineteenth century. After the death of Joseph II immigration from Germany and Austria diminished; and, so far as colonization continued, it was carried out with a view to extending Magyar influence, and chiefly in the counties of Torontál and Temes. This was a natural result of the fact that in 1779 the Banat, hitherto governed at least nominally from Vienna, had—with the exception of the military frontier districts—been incorporated with the kingdom of Hungary, with which it remained united until 1849. After the defeat of the Revolutionary Government in that year the Banat, together with the county of Bács-Bodrog (Bácska), which adjoins it on the western side, and with a couple of districts in Syrmia, was separated from the kingdom named the Voivodina, and treated as a province of Austria until 1860, when both the Banat and Bácska were finally re-incorporated with Hungary.

## (2) NOTE ON THE SERBS OF SOUTH HUNGARY

The original Serb element in the population of the Banat was formed, as has been said, by successive bands of refugees who withdrew from Serbia after the

defeat of Kossovo in 1389.<sup>1</sup> After 1718 it was largely reinforced by fresh Serbian immigrants who came, not directly from Serbia, but from the adjoining district of Bács-Bodrog (Bácska), where they had been recently settled by the action of the Emperor, Leopold I (1690). Involved in his final struggle with the Turk and in his war with France, he was desirous of increasing his military forces,<sup>2</sup> and with this aim he issued an invitation to the Serbians to settle in his dominions, under promise of full religious autonomy, of the right to elect their own Voivode, and of certain other national privileges. To this invitation the Patriarch Arsen III of Ipek responded by migrating with some 30,000 or 40,000 Serbian families to Bácska. The terms of his agreement with Leopold are undoubtedly obscure; it may, however, be taken as certain that the Emperor had no intention of allowing the Serbs (as national historians claim) complete self-government. He wished to employ Serbian troops under a general of their own race, and with this object undertook to allow them to elect their Voivode as civil governor, to judge them according to their own customs. The Serbian contingent fought bravely, and in particular distinguished itself in 1697 at the battle of Zenta, the first of Prince Eugene's great victories; and after the Peace of Passarowitz the Serbs of Bácska were encouraged to take part in repopulating the devastated Banat. During Austria's brief tenure (1718-39) of her Serbian conquests, the newly acquired region was grouped with certain districts south of the Danube; and in 1731 the Patriarchates of Belgrade and Karlowitz were united. The national consciousness of the Hungarian Serbs was heightened by this temporary union with their kindred, while at the same time it was exasperated by the Emperor's evasion of his promises and by the un-

<sup>1</sup> It is possible that a Serb element was already present, but adequate proof is lacking.

<sup>2</sup> He was strongly anti-Hungarian in policy, and probably also aimed at creating a counterpoise to the Magyars. The invitation was apparently issued merely in virtue of his personal authority.

welcome control which was exercised over them by the Hungarian county authorities, in spite of the fact that at Vienna they were regarded as direct vassals of the Emperor; for the Hungarians denied his right to exercise such authority in the kingdom of Hungary. These circumstances led in 1735 to a general rising, which was repressed with extreme severity. Of all the imperial promises, that respecting religious autonomy was alone fulfilled; and, though exposed to the proselytizing activity of the Magyar clergy, which resulted in the conversion of large numbers to Catholicism, the Serbs succeeded in maintaining their own religion. Great efforts were made by the Serbian ecclesiastics to promote education, with the result that even after the liberation of Serbia the centre of Serbian culture still lay north of the Danube, and that the young Principality drew from the Banat not only the best of her clergy but most of her officials, and the founder of her educational system, Dositije Obradović. Hungarian Serbs, moreover, supported the Serbian War of Liberation with money and with arms.

In the first half of the nineteenth century the Serbs of the Banat and Bácska were decidedly prosperous, for a large part of the trade of southern Hungary was in their hands, and their middle class was relatively large. The growth of national feeling was as marked among them during this period as among the other Slav nationalities of the monarchy; and the efforts of the Magyars to force upon them the official use of the Magyar language were keenly resented. In 1848 the intolerant attitude of Kossuth and his hostile reception at Pressburg of a Hungarian Serb deputation to the Diet drove the Hungarian Serbs, like the Croats, into the arms of Austria. There were risings in Bácska, and large contingents joined Jellačić on his advance through southern Hungary. Vienna acknowledged their assistance by separating Bácska and the Banat from Hungary, and erecting them, together with part of Syrmia (the eastern angle of the country between the Save and the Drave), into a nominally autonomous

Serbian Voivodina; but, as racial boundaries were deliberately ignored, and large German, Vlach, and Magyar elements were included in the new province, and as the Constitution, moreover, was extremely reactionary, the arrangement resulted merely in general discontent.

On the collapse of the Bach régime in 1860 the Voivodina was reincorporated with Hungary. Since that date the Serbs have steadily lost ground in South Hungary. Some have succumbed to pressure and become Magyarized; their numbers have declined, and with their numbers they have lost their importance. Formerly inclined to consider the Serbs of Serbia as their inferiors in culture, since the accession of King Peter in 1903 they have looked more and more to Belgrade; and the Serbian successes in the Balkan Wars evoked among them an enthusiasm at least equal to that of the other Jugo-Slavs.

It is obvious that the position of this fragment of the Serbian race presents a problem of peculiar complexity, connected as it is with that of the northern frontier of the kingdom of Serbia.



### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### TRANSYLVANIA

##### (1) RELIGIOUS

TRANSYLVANIA is at the present day very free from religious strife and intolerance. Racial and religious divisions tend to correspond. The Vlachs almost all belong either to the Orthodox or to the Uniat Churches, and the Saxons to one or other of the Protestant Churches.

The Magyars also are for the most part Protestants, though some are Unitarians and some Roman Catholics, while some belong to the Orthodox and Uniat Churches. The Szekels are mostly Roman Catholics.

The religious census of 1910 shows the following results :

		<i>Per cent.</i>
Orthodox . . . . .	792,864	29.6
Uniat . . . . .	749,404	28
Calvinists (Reformed Church) . . . . .	399,312	14.9
Roman Catholics . . . . .	375,325	14
Lutherans (Augsburg Confession) . . . . .	229,028	8.6
Unitarians . . . . .	67,749	2.5
Jews . . . . .	64,074	2.4
Unenumerated . . . . .	611	

The clergy of the Orthodox Church are usually not very intellectual; and the Uniat clergy, although rather superior to them and to the Orthodox clergy of Russia, are not highly educated. This state of things may perhaps be accounted for by their being nearly all drawn from the Vlach population, which stands on a rather low level of culture. The head of the Uniat Church in Transylvania is a metropolitan, whose seat is at Balászfalva. There are three Uniat bishoprics in Hungary: Nagyvárad founded in 1776, Lugos founded in 1850, and Szamos Újvár founded in 1873.

The Roman Catholic clergy are abler and more active than the Uniat clergy, and better educated. But their educational policy, as elsewhere, is strictly denominational, and is often attacked on the ground of an alleged tendency to narrowness. The Lutheran and Calvinist clergy are drawn entirely from among the Saxons and Magyars. They naturally show to a considerable extent the characteristics of these peoples. They are well educated, and, like the Unitarian ministers, have often attended universities.

## (2) POLITICAL

Political questions in Transylvania are mainly racial, though, in common with the rest of Hungary, Transylvania has experienced an ineffective movement towards agrarian socialism. More important has been an attempt to form a Vlach or Rumanian nationalist political party. In Transylvania the franchise, which differs to some extent from that of the rest of Hungary, has in the past worked out in such a way that the Vlach population has not had much voting power. There is now a new franchise and redistribution law in Hungary, the effects of which are not fully known as yet, but it is not likely to transfer power from the Magyars. In the past, Transylvania returned 74 members to the Hungarian Parliament. Of the 74 members, 35 sat for towns and for counties where there is a considerable Magyar and non-Vlach electorate.<sup>1</sup> In the districts inhabited mainly by Vlachs the number of deputies returned is, in proportion to the population, much smaller. The Vlachs are prejudiced by the combined effect of the franchise qualification and of the distribution of seats, so that they return fewer members in proportion to their number. This result is welcome to the Magyar majority in Hungary, who fear that electoral laws which gave the power to a very backward peasantry of different nationality might constitute a danger to

<sup>1</sup> See Seton-Watson, *Racial Problems in Hungary*, p. 252.

the Hungarian State. Though the Government and county authorities have discouraged the formation of the Rumanian or Vlach national party so far as possible, the Rumanian nationalist agitation has continued with fluctuating strength, deriving a good deal of support from sympathizers in Rumania, and especially from the propaganda emanating from the students of the Rumanian University at Bucarest. Criminal proceedings have been taken from time to time in the courts against those connected with the movement to prevent infractions of the law considered to be likely to instigate sedition or hostile feeling against Magyar or other nationalities. It is alleged that elections have often taken place under conditions which prevented a really free exercise of the right to vote; there are, however, few countries in central or eastern Europe where Governments abstain from exercising influence in favour of candidates or parties supporting the Government policy.

On the whole, in spite of defects in the machinery and the personnel, the Government administration, both central and local, can well bear comparison with the administration in the adjoining countries of Rumania, Russia, or of the Balkan States. Railways have been built and roads have been improved. Law and order are maintained; the country is efficiently policed, and a traveller may pass through the remotest parts without molestation. Life and property are efficiently protected. Justice is not corrupt, nor does it seem that the judges can fairly be accused of administering it on partisan lines, although, where nationalist agitation prevails and racial feeling runs high, the accusation of partisanship is nearly certain to be brought.

### (3) EDUCATIONAL

All the nationalities in Transylvania have used the schools as a means of maintaining, and, so far as possible, extending, their position and power. The Magyar majority in the Hungarian Parliament has, with the same object in view, passed laws to secure

that every Hungarian citizen shall know Magyar, the State language. This policy has produced a long struggle between the State and the Saxons and Vlachs. The Saxons have, for many generations, been a people well educated in schools of their own, with German as the language of instruction. The Vlachs, though far behind the Saxons in educational matters, have started schools in which the teachers and the teaching are Vlach. The State has, however, a great power over schools of all kinds, because it can make or withhold grants in aid, and this power has greatly assisted the State policy.

The more important laws dealing with education in Hungary are those of 1868, 1879, 1893, and 1907.<sup>1</sup> The Law of 1868 provided for the compulsory education of all children between the ages of 6 and 12, and for the obligatory building of schools in districts where educational needs were not already provided for by existing denominational schools. At the date of this enactment some 60 per cent. of the population of Hungary were illiterate; and the burden thus thrown on the poorer districts was a heavy one. Great progress was, nevertheless, made in providing schools, especially having regard to the fact that many districts were sparsely populated, and ill provided with roads; it is partly for this reason that educational facilities are not always such as could be desired. The Law of 1868 further provided, at least in theory, for instruction of children in their mother tongue in schools below those in which academic education begins.<sup>2</sup>

By 1879 the policy of giving a knowledge of Magyar, as the State language, to all citizens had begun to be adopted; and the Education Law of that year, with a view to securing competent teaching of the Magyar language, makes it a necessary qualification for the appointment of a school teacher that he should be certified by a State inspector to know Magyar. The same law also gives the Minister of Education

<sup>1</sup> See *Ungarische Landesgesetzsammlung*. Aemtliche Ausgabe.

<sup>2</sup> See *Hungary*, No. 2 of this series, Appendix.



power to determine how many hours shall be devoted in each week to the study of the Magyar language.

There were before 1868, and still are, many schools not provided by the State. These were usually provided by the various religious bodies, and were managed by them. In those cases in which the religious denomination consisted chiefly of people of one nationality, as in the case of the Orthodox and Uniat Churches (which are usually entirely Vlach) and the Lutheran Church (which is Saxon) there was an obvious probability that the schools under such control would be used as a means of preserving the language and national feeling of the nationality concerned. Nor was there anything in the Education Law of 1868 to make this illegal, for by that law the authorities providing these schools were entitled to choose the language of instruction themselves. Law XXVI of 1893 gave these denominational schools the right to receive State grants of money ; but, in return for this, the schools accepting the grants were required to accept State control in certain ways, e. g. by submitting the appointments of teachers for approval by the State Education Authority. This constituted a great temptation to the poorer schools, which were usually Vlach, to give up some of their independence. The Education Law of 1907 extended the provisions of the Law of 1893, raised the salaries of teachers and the general standard of efficiency demanded of schools, besides specifically requiring better instruction in the State language.

This educational legislation has been bitterly opposed by the more extreme Nationalists, who say that its aims are political rather than educational. The Saxons especially complain that the new education causes too much time to be spent over learning Magyar at the expense of what they consider to be more important educational aims. The Magyars have doubtless been anxious to secure the control of education by the central authorities, so that the schools might not be used for political purposes by the more extreme Nationalists among the Vlachs. The attitude of the

Rumanian Government has been a fairly correct one, particularly when the political relations between Rumania and Austria-Hungary have been friendly. But there has always been an active party in Rumania, recruited from among refugees from Hungary and from among Rumanian students and politicians, whose avowed aim has been to secure the union of Transylvania, and other parts of Hungary where there is any Vlach population, with Rumania. This party has used not only the school question to assist their Pan-Vlach propaganda, but, in addition to the press, a number of less direct means, such as folk-song societies.

Prosecutions of Vlachs for political or quasi-political offences have been frequent during the last twenty years in Hungary. Among those prosecuted there have been teachers, priests, and political leaders.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

### *(a) Popular Opinion and National Sentiment*

Questions of sentiment are unusually important in Transylvania. National sentiment of the strongest type is to be found amongst the four nationalities living in the country; and in the case of the Magyars, the Szekels, and the Germans, this is strengthened by the privileges they formerly enjoyed. These three nations, no less than the Vlachs, feel that Transylvania is their homeland. The Magyars and the Szekels add to this a devotion to the wider ideal of the Hungarian State. It is not easy to estimate, from present information, whether the Vlach population have any strong sentimental feeling for the idea of a great Rumania, or would prefer, if their language and nationality were secure, to remain separate from the Rumanian kingdom.

### *(b) Proposals for Expansion and Development.*

The possibilities of expansion and development in a political sense appear to be limited to the union of Transylvania and Rumania, and the creation of a new

autonomous Vlach state, consisting of Transylvania and the counties to the west and south,<sup>1</sup> in which there is a considerable Vlach element, with perhaps that part of the Bukovina where there is a Vlach population. The Vlachs are genuinely desirous of improving themselves by education; they also naturally resent the superior attitude often adopted by both Magyars and Germans; but, on the other hand, the tone adopted by some Vlach nationalists, especially those in Rumania, is very aggressive.

## THE BANAT

### (1) RELIGIOUS

The same religious conditions exist in the Banat as elsewhere in Hungary, that is to say, there is complete religious toleration.

More than half the population belongs to the Ortho-

<sup>1</sup> The Vlachs in the Hungarian counties outside Transylvania slightly outnumber those within Transylvania itself. The counties in which there is a large Vlach element are :

		<i>Vlach Population.</i>
1. On the North		
Máramaros . . . . .		84,510
Szatmár . . . . .		118,774
2. On the North-West		
Szilágy . . . . .		136,087
3. On the West		
Bihar . . . . .		261,494
Arad, town and district . . . . .		239,755
4. On the South-West		
Temes, including Tem-	The Banat	169,030
esvár and Versecz . . . . .		
5. On the South		
Torontál, including		
Pancsova . . . . .		86,937
Krassó-Szörény . . . . .		336,082
Elsewhere . . . . .		43,496
Total outside Transylvania . . . . .		1,476,165
Total in Transylvania . . . . .		1,472,021
Total Vlachs in Hungary . . . . .		2,948,186

Full details can be found in the Hungarian official statistics, *Magyar Statisztikai Évkönyv*, vol. xix (Budapest, 1913)

dox Church (855,852), and practically all of the Orthodox are either Vlachs<sup>1</sup> or Serbs by race. There are besides some 36,000 Uniats, most of whom are Vlachs. The Roman Catholics number about 581,000, and are chiefly German-speaking 'Swabians', but include some Magyars and also some Slavs. The Lutherans number about 41,000 and the Calvinists about 34,000. The clergy of the various denominations on the whole may be said to reflect to some extent the social conditions and general education of the races to which the bulk of their respective adherents belong, and from which they themselves are chiefly drawn. The Roman Catholic clergy are, therefore, largely German-speaking; and, as the Germans are better educated than the Vlachs or Serbs, they are better educated than the Orthodox clergy. The Protestant clergy are also usually very well educated. There is not much religious animosity displayed by the various denominations.

#### DISTRIBUTION OF RELIGIONS IN THE BANAT, 1910

	<i>Roman Catholic.</i>	<i>Uniat.</i>	<i>Orthodox.</i>	<i>Calvinist.</i>	<i>Luthe- ran.</i>
Temes . . . .	211,175	12,381	232,057	11,135	13,611
Torontál . . . .	279,793	3,828	286,642	12,549	24,905
Krassó-Szörény . .	90,479	20,006	337,153	10,400	2,875
Totals . . . .	581,447	36,215	855,852	34,084	41,391

#### *Prevailing Religions of Nationalities in Southern Hungary*

In southern Hungary the Magyars are mainly either Roman Catholics or Calvinists, in the ratio of 4 to 1. Germans are mainly Roman Catholics or Lutherans, in the ratio of 4 to 1. Serbs are practically all Orthodox. There are a few small groups of Serb-speaking people, such as the Schokatzes, Bunyevatzes, and Krassovans, who are Roman Catholics. Vlachs are practically all Orthodox.

<sup>1</sup> The Vlachs are a Romance-speaking people, identical in race with the Rumanians, by whose name they are sometimes called. See above, p. 12.



## (2) POLITICAL

From the time when the compromise of 1867 established the kingdom of Hungary, the Banat has been subject to the same laws as the other parts of Hungary which have no special rights.<sup>1</sup> This applies to both central and local government and to education. The character and methods of the government are much the same as in other parts of Hungary; and the difficulties which exist arise from the same causes, and are chiefly national or racial in character. They are, however, less acute than in Transylvania, although both Transylvania and the Banat have the common feature of an important German-speaking minority. They have also the common feature of a large Vlach population; and for this reason, perhaps, the Banat is often spoken of in connexion with Transylvania. But there has never been any political connexion between the two districts other than the fact that both were part of the kingdom of Hungary.

## (3) EDUCATIONAL

This subject in its general aspect will be found fully treated above (p. 32), but the educational arrangements of the German-speaking population deserve notice. Even the poorest German schools have four classes. The better ones have six classes. The teachers are well paid. Mistresses teach needlework thoroughly in the girls' schools, and there are continuation schools for boys and for girls, which are attended by the children till they are fifteen years of age.

The well-to-do Germans send their sons to *Realschulen*, or, if possible, to a *Gymnasium*, for a still fuller education, at Temesvár or some other town of southern Hungary where German schools of these types exist.

<sup>1</sup> The last remnants of the military frontier system were finally abolished in 1872-3

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

*(a) Popular Opinion and National Sentiment*

In a district with so mixed a population as the Banat it can hardly be said that there is such a thing as a general popular opinion, as distinct from the national sentiments of the various races.

The Vlachs, numbering nearly 600,000, live chiefly in the eastern part of the Banat, in the counties of Krassó-Szörény and Temes. They have a strong wish to retain their nationality and language, and passively resist the policy of the Hungarian Government in so far as that policy seeks to make the Magyar language universally used in Hungary. The same may be said of the 387,000 Germans, who form the second largest racial section, and the 284,000 Serbs, who slightly outnumber the Magyars (242,000).<sup>1</sup>

It is by no means clear that the Vlachs of the Banat have wished to be united to the kingdom of Rumania. They have probably been, economically at any rate, better off than the peasantry who live in Rumania.

The Serbs, who are chiefly to be found in the western part of the Banat, have a stronger national feeling than the Vlachs; the Greater Serbia movement has made more progress amongst them than the Greater Rumania movement has among their neighbours. This is due to historical causes, of which some account has been given in the note on the Serbs of South Hungary (p. 26). The question in the western Banat is one between Germans and Serbs, rather than between Germans and Magyars or Vlachs. The Serbs have hitherto shown themselves more progressive than the Vlachs in education and as business men.

The German-speaking colonists, who are now generally known as Swabians, have remained perfectly distinct from their neighbours, and have a vigorous national life. This is probably not only because the German-speaking colonists came in much larger num-

<sup>1</sup> For another numeration, from official sources, see p. 5.

bers than many of the colonists of other nationalities, and because they were encouraged and protected by the Government, but also because they were better educated and stood on an altogether higher level of efficiency than the Slav, Vlach, or Magyar settlers. They have no strong political views, but their national sentiment is very strong. They are for the most part a highly prosperous yeoman class, owning their own land, and are excellent farmers and most successful horse-breeders. They form a valuable asset in the economic life of the country, and contribute to its development and stability. Probably the Vlachs and Germans of the Banat would be satisfied with any political arrangement which secured to them the right to maintain their nationality and language and eliminated the struggle against Magyarization. The Magyars, who number nearly a quarter of a million in the Banat, appear content with the existing political conditions.

*(b) Questions specially interesting Other Countries*

The Vlach population and the Serb population are obviously important to Serbia and Rumania respectively, if those countries should ever succeed in their aims of uniting the bulk of the Serb and Vlach races with the kingdoms of Serbia and Rumania. Moreover, there is still some room for colonization.

If the plans for a Greater Serbia and a Greater Rumania were to be alike realized, a division of the Banat would be necessary. The eastern part would become Rumanian and the western Serb, while part of the north-west might be incorporated in a new Magyar state. Now, however, that the dismemberment of the Hapsburg Empire appears certain, the question of the Banat has assumed a new form, for the whole territory has been claimed by Rumania. But whatever the result of the negotiations on the subject may be, the rights of the German nationality in the new divisions would require some special guarantees if future unrest among so important a section of the communities is to be avoided.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### TRANSYLVANIA

#### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

##### *(a) Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

TRANSYLVANIA is one of the more flourishing divisions of Hungary, and its system of communications has received corresponding attention. In 1912 there were 2,835 km. of State roads, 4,343 km. of municipal roads, 6,777 km. of communal public roads, and 83.9 km. of roads in connexion with railway stations. There were thus, on an average, 24.1 km. of road per 100 square km. and 50.9 km. per 10,000 inhabitants, the figures for Hungary, as a whole, being 29.4 km. and 45 km. respectively. Communal paths and tracks extended to 12,569 km. In 1913 the total length of the State roads had increased to 2,880 km.; the other figures showed practically no change. As is usual in Hungary, however, the roads are badly kept.

The main roads, like the railways, generally follow the river valleys, those of the Olt, the two Küküllös, the Maros, and the Szamos, with interconnecting branches over the watersheds.

##### *(b) Rivers and Canals*

The Maros, one of the three principal rivers of Hungary, rises in the Carpathians and flows through Transylvania from east to south-west, ultimately joining the Tisza near Szeged. It is navigable for barges from Szeged to Szászrégen, about 35 km. north-east of Maros-Vásárhely, a distance of 615 km.; but steamers cannot ascend farther than Arad, on the northern border of the Banat, which lies nearly 100 km. west of the Transylvanian border. The Aranyos,



a tributary of the Maros, is navigable up to Torda, which is 22 km. from the confluence of the two streams.

Another affluent of the Tisza, the Szamos, formed by the union of the Great and the Little Szamos, runs through northern Transylvania. It is navigable for barges from the Tisza to Bethlen, in the county of Szolnok-Doboka, a distance of 337 km., and for river steamers to Szatmár-Németi, which, though not in Transylvania, is not far from its north-western border. It will thus be seen that Transylvania is not ill-provided with waterways, but comparatively little attention has been given to their development. No separate returns are published showing the extent of the river-borne traffic.

A project for making a ship canal from the Szamos to the Berettyó, a tributary of the Tisza, has been worked out, but so far nothing more has been done.

### (c) *Railways*

In 1912 there were 2,373·5 km. of railway in Transylvania—that is to say, an average of 4·1 km. to every 100 square km. and 8·67 km. to every 10,000 inhabitants, the corresponding figures for Hungary as a whole being 6·6 km. and 10·1 km.; 1,063·7 km. were owned by the State, 992·9 km. were worked by the State on behalf of private companies, and the rest were both owned and worked by private companies. As was the case in Hungary generally before the war, the railways in Transylvania were barely adequate for the traffic.

The trunk line of Transylvania is that from Budapest to Predeal, on the Rumanian frontier, *via* Nagyvárad (Grosswardein) and Kolozsvár. Entering Transylvania at Csucs, it runs in a south-easterly direction to Kolozsvár (Klausenburg). At Apahida, a few kilometres farther east, it turns sharply to the south, and crossing the watershed between the Szamos and the Aranyos, reaches the latter river, and soon afterwards the Maros, the valley of which it follows as far as Tövis. Here it is joined by another important line from Budapest, particulars

of which are given below. From Tövis the main line, turning east, goes up the valley of the Nagy-Küküllő river, passing through Medgyes, the centre of a great wine-producing district, and Segesvár. At Héjasfalva, it leaves the Nagy-Küküllő, and runs over hilly country to the valley of the Olt, the devious course of which determines its route as far as the neighbourhood of Brassó (Kronstadt). Predeal, where the line meets the Rumanian railway system, is only a few kilometres farther south.

Branches leave the main line at various places. Their starting-points and the districts they serve are enumerated in the following notes.

1. From Kolozsvár–Apahida a line runs northward, affording connexion with the railways of north-east Hungary, and at Dés throwing out a branch which beyond Bethlen bifurcates into the two lines serving the county of Besztercze-Naszód.

2. At Aranyosgyéres a branch leaves the main line for Torda, a salt-mining centre, 9 km. distant, whence it is continued in a narrow-gauge line to Abrudbánya.

3. A few kilometres farther south is the junction of Székelykocsárd, the starting-point of an important line which provides a wide area of eastern Transylvania with its sole means of rapid communication. This line follows the wide curve of the Maros valley, passing through Maros-Vásárhely and Szászrégen; then, crossing the narrow divide between the Maros and the Olt, it runs close to the latter river, through wooded and mountainous country, and finally reaches Brassó from the north-east. As for a long distance it runs near the Rumanian frontier, it is of much strategic value. It has the following branches:

(a) From a point near Marosludas, through the counties of Torda-Aranyos and Kolozs, to the Dés–Beszterczeline, which it meets at Sajómagyaros; a cross-line from Mezőmehes makes another connexion with the main line at Maros-Vásárhely, and from this cross-line a branch at Mező-Tóhát goes north to Kolozsnagyida;  
(b) from Madéfalva through the Gyimes Pass into

Moldavia ; (c) from Sepsiszentgyörgy to Térret and Bereczk, a town near the eastern frontier, the centre of a valuable oil-field.

4. From near Felvincz a short branch leaves the main line for Maros-Ujvár, 4 km. away, the centre of the salt-mining industry.

5. From Küküllöszög up the valley of the Kis-Küllö to the great salt districts of Sóvárád and Parajd. A cross-line from Maros-Vásárhely to near Parajd has been completed.

6. From Kiskapus to Nagy-Szeben (Hermannstadt) and through the Verestorony (Roterturm) Pass into Rumania, with a short branch at Sellenberk to Nagy-Disznód, where are many wool factories.

7. From Segesvár a narrow-gauge line goes in a south-westerly direction to Szent Agota, and is continued to the Nagy-Szeben-Roterturm line.

8. From Héjasfalva to Székelyudvarhely, a distance of 49 km.

9. From Brassó a line runs westward, *via* Fogaras and the Olt valley, and joins the line from Nagy-Szeben to the Verestorony (Roterturm) Pass a short distance north of the frontier.

10. From Brassó to Zernest, 28 km. to the south-west.

11. From Brassó to Hosszúfalu, a few kilometres to the south-east.

The important railway from Budapest and Arad which, as was stated above, joins the main line at Tövis, enters Transylvania near Zám and keeps close to the Maros river all the way to the junction. It has the following branches :

(i) From Piski, in the mining county of Hunyad, to Vajda Hunyad, and thence, as a narrow-gauge line, to Govasdia and Retyisora, all in the great iron district.

(ii) From Piski to the coal region around Petrozsény and Lupeny. From a point some 30 km. south of Piski a line runs to Karánsebes in the Banat, thus affording connexion with the route into Rumania through the Iron Gates.

(iii) From Alkenyér a short line, about 12 km. long, to the iron and steel works at Kudzsir.

(iv) From Alvincz to Nagy-Szeben, which, it will be seen, has become one of the most notable railway centres in Transylvania.

(v) From Gjulafehérvár to the gold-mines at Zalatna, a narrow-gauge line, 38 km. in length.

#### *(d) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

In 1912 Transylvania contained 455 post offices, 544 telegraph offices, and 5,993 telephone stations. These figures represent for every 100,000 inhabitants 16·6 post offices, 19·9 telegraph offices, and 218·9 telephone stations, as compared with 21·8 post offices, 23·5 telegraph offices, and 356·7 telephone stations for Hungary as a whole.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

*Labour Conditions.*—Hungary is a country of low wages and generally unsatisfactory conditions of labour; and Transylvania is among the worst districts in these respects. The mining and metal industries are, on the whole, the best paid; but the legal nine hours' shift for miners and the eleven hours' day for factories are usually exceeded, while the provisions of the various factory Acts are not rigidly observed. In 1912 the wages in the mines and metal industries of Transylvania ranged, for men, from 100 to 487 fillers, or 10*d.* to about 4*s.* per day; for women, from 89 to 160 fillers, or nearly 9*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*; and for children, from 57 to 150 fillers, or about 5½*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* These rates, especially the men's minimum, compare very unfavourably with those paid in the same industry in the rest of Hungary. Agricultural wages vary according to the season and the districts, but as a rule are lower than in most parts of the kingdom. In 1904 they were generally less than a crown (100 fillers) a day,



without board, for men, falling to 85 fillers or  $8\frac{1}{2}d.$  in the counties of Kis-Küküllő and Szolnok-Doboka, while women, on the same terms, got, in some counties, as little as 69 fillers or a trifle less than  $7d.$  Wages have risen since 1904, but so have prices; and it is doubtful whether there has been any net gain for the workers. The poorer classes, in both town and country, suffer from overcrowding, bad sanitation, and insufficient nourishment, conditions which in great measure account for the prevalent intemperance in spirit-drinking.

*Emigration and Immigration.*—Emigration is naturally in popular favour, and has long caused serious concern in Hungary. In 1913 the emigrants from Transylvania numbered 18,972, or 6.9 per 1,000 of the population, over 10,000 being men; the largest quotas came from the counties of Nagy-Küküllő (3,209), Kis-Küküllő (2,848), and Alsó-Fehér (2,226). According to race, as fixed by language, 13,609 of the emigrants were Rumanians (Vlachs), 2,677 were Magyars, and 2,663 Germans, figures which account for the gross total less 23. But, in contrast with the rest of Hungary, only 9,927, or rather more than half, went to America, while 8,097 simply crossed the frontier into Rumania. In any case, the Hungarian emigrants, as a class, do not go to colonize, but to make money and return home. Thus, in 1913, 2,019 emigrants, or 0.7 per 1,000 of the population, returned to Transylvania. Of these 1,561 were men, and 1,249 came from America. The rest were chiefly returns from Rumania.

Of actual immigrants there were in the same year 1,067, a little over a half being from Austria, mostly Germans and Poles, while 294 were Italians.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

### (a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The mountainous character of Transylvania prevents it from being a great agricultural area; and only 29.3 per cent. of the surface is under cultivation. Less

than 4 per cent., however, is unproductive, 38 per cent. being wooded and the rest consisting of meadow and pasture.

Maize is the principal grain crop, as it is throughout Hungary, where it is in rising demand for the fattening of animals and the production of spirits. In each of the Transylvanian counties of Szolnok-Doboka and Kis-Küküllő, 47 per cent. of the surface is devoted to maize—a proportion exceeded by only one other county in Hungary. In the quantity of maize produced, however, Hunyad holds the lead among the Transylvanian counties. The total production of Transylvania in 1913 was 330,000 metric tons. In the same year Hungary, as a whole, raised over 5,360,000 metric tons, an average yield of 18·4 quintals per hectare. The best averages in Transylvania were 12·6 and 12·5 quintals per hectare, in Szeben and Brassó respectively, while the general average was only 8·6.

Of wheat and rye the yield is likewise comparatively poor; in fact, oats and barley are the only cereals with an average yield equal to that of Hungary as a whole. The amounts of wheat and oats grown in 1913 were nearly equal, 256,000 metric tons of the former and 235,800 metric tons of the latter. The chief wheat-producing counties are in the west, while Háromszék, in the extreme south-eastern corner, takes first place in respect of the amount of oats raised, and Csík, which fringes the eastern frontier, has the largest proportion of surface, 28·28 per cent., under this crop. Transylvania's contribution to the total Hungarian crop is relatively larger in the case of oats than in that of any other cereal.

The chief barley-growing counties are Brassó, Háromszék, and Csík in the south-east, and Kolozs and Torda-Aranyos in the west. These five counties raise two-thirds of the Transylvanian crop.

Rye has lost favour in Hungary during the past twenty years; and the area devoted to it and the total production have alike diminished. The Transylvanian county of Csík, in proportion to its size, has more land

under rye than any other county of Hungary, and stands first among the counties of Transylvania in respect of the quantity raised. Rye is also largely grown in Fogaras, Kolozs, and Hunyad.

Statistics of the production per hectare of all cereal crops reveal the little county of Brassó, in the upper basin of the Olt, as taking the first place, followed by the group of counties between the Olt and the Maros-Szeben, Alsó-Fehér and the two Küküllös.

Potatoes are not in Hungary a crop of much importance. In 1913 Transylvania contributed rather over 280,000 metric tons to the 5,400,000 produced in the whole kingdom. In Transylvania more than six-sevenths of the crop comes from Csík and the line of counties on the southern frontier.

More than half the beetroot produced in Transylvania for the sugar factories comes from the county of Brassó. Most of the remainder is grown in Háromszék and Torda-Aranyos. The cultivation of beetroot is much encouraged by the State.

Statistics for 1913 of the crops mentioned above are given in the following table ; more detailed figures will be found in Table II of the Appendix :

	<i>Total Transylvanian production in metric tons.</i>	<i>Percentage of Hungarian production.</i>	<i>Average yield per hectare in quintals.</i>	
			<i>Transylvania.</i>	<i>Hungary.</i>
Maize . . .	330,000	5·8	8·6	18·4
Wheat . . .	256,098	5·5	9·6	13·2
Oats . . .	235,802	15·2	12·4	12·1
Barley . . .	127,978	7·1	14·1	14·7
Rye . . .	37,512	2·6	9·4	12·2
Potatoes . . .	280,702	5·1	70·7	78·9
Beetroot . . .	121,560	2·5	230·9	267·2

The cultivation of tobacco has declined in recent years, the amount produced decreasing from 1,492 quintals in 1910 to 885 quintals in 1913. The pecuniary value of the crop increased, however, in the same period, owing to the higher price paid by the State for the raw leaf.

The vine crop is comparatively insignificant, though wines of good quality are obtained from the vines on

the banks of the Maros. Vines are not grown in the counties of Brassó, Csík, and Háromszék. The area of the vineyards amounts to only 12,121 hectares, or 3·2 per cent. of the total for Hungary ; the average yield is much below that of the kingdom as a whole, and the value of the crop in 1913 was 3,603,000 kr., or only 2·3 per cent. of the value of the total Hungarian production.

Bee-keeping is highly developed in Transylvania ; and the output of honey and wax is considerable, accounting for 13·1 per cent. of the total amount of honey produced in Hungary, for 25·7 per cent. of the wax, and 14·4 per cent. of the value of the two products.

The latest census of live stock, which, as in other parts of Hungary, was taken in 1911, gave the following figures :

Horned cattle . . .	1,178,170	Sheep . . . .	2,104,431
Horses . . . .	185,891	Goats . . . .	124,799
Donkeys . . . .	2,645	Pigs . . . .	601,876
Mules . . . .	193		

The horned cattle are equal to the best Hungarian breeds. Buffaloes are bred and used as draught animals, and the milk of the cow-buffalo is highly esteemed. There is a considerable amount of horse-breeding, the great centre for which is Dés in Szolnok-Doboka ; and the export of horses from Transylvania is fairly large. Sheep-rearing is an important industry, especially in the southern part of the country.

### (b) *Forestry*

The forests of Transylvania cover 2,239,776 hectares, or a quarter of the forest area of Hungary. Of the Transylvanian forest land, 1,581,249 hectares are under State direction. Hunyad is the county with the greatest extent of forest, but Háromszék, 61 per cent. of which is wooded, has a larger forest area in proportion to its size. On the whole the most thickly forested counties are those on the Rumanian border.

Transylvania and the Carpathians generally furnish



almost all the resinous trees grown in Hungary, and of the total Transylvania alone accounts for 30 per cent. The most plentiful tree, however, is the beech, but in the forest statistics several species are classified under this head. The oak stands third, after the coniferous group.

### (3) MINERALS

The prime metal region of Transylvania is contained in the north-east portion of the county of Hunyad and the south-west of Alsó-Fehér; the most important coal district is that in the south-east of Hunyad.

The following table gives a general view of the weights and values of the output of minerals in Transylvania, with the proportions which they bear to those for Hungary as a whole. With the exception of salt (1912) the figures are for 1913. The weights of gold and silver are given in kilogrammes, of the other products in metric tons.

	TRANSYLVANIA.		HUNGARY.		TRANSYLVANIA.	
	<i>Weight in kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Value in 1,000 kr.</i>	<i>Weight in kilogrammes.</i>	<i>Value in 1,000 kr.</i>	<i>Percentage of Total.</i>	
					<i>Weight.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Gold . . . . .	2,004	6,566	2,924	9,586	68·5	68·5
Silver . . . . .	1,513	133	8,696	820	17·4	16·2
	<i>In metric tons.</i>		<i>In metric tons.</i>			
Iron ore . . . . .	325,228·5	1,975	2,059,075·9	17,991	15·7	10·9
Iron pyrites . . . .	41,279·5	483	106,629·2	1,118	38·7	43·2
Mixed ores, high grade	62,707·3	2,855	73,648·3	5,001	85·1	57·1
Mixed ores, inferior grade . . . . .	253,676·1	2,983	443,380·2	6,746	57·2	44·0
Manganese ore . . .	1,800	36	19,005·6	267	9·4	13·5
Pit-coal . . . . .	7,876·2	155	1,319,918	18,387	0·6	0·8
Brown coal (lignite) .	2,325,039	27,509	8,954,133·1	89,999	25·9	30·5
Salt (1912) . . . .	159,917·6	17,696	270,929·4	37,997	59·0	46·5

*Gold and Silver.*—After Russia, Transylvania is believed to possess the greatest store of gold in Europe; and its output of silver is also considerable. The most important mines from which the precious metals are obtained are at Zalatna (the head-quarters of the mining district of Transylvania), Verespatak and Bucsum in Alsó-Fehér, and at Nagyág, Borad, and Boicza in Hunyad. There are smaller mines in the counties of Torda-Aranyos, Szolnok-Doboka, Besz-

tercze-Naszód, Kolozs, and Csík. In three districts of Szeben, and on many streams and rivers, such as the Maros and the Aranyos, washing for gold is carried on.

About half the gold output, but only a quarter of the silver, is from the State mines.

*Copper, Lead, Manganese, &c.*—The production of copper and lead is associated with that of gold and silver; and, although the copper industry of Hungary has steadily declined during the past half-century, there are still workings in the Transylvanian counties of Hunyad (at Almasel, Veczel, &c.) and Csík (at Baldenbánya). Lead is worked at Kisalmás in Hunyad and manganese at Podale in the same county, while manganese is associated with iron ore at several places in Hunyad, as Batrina, Roskány, &c., at Kosna in Besztercze-Naszód, at Alsó- and Felső-Szolcsva, Brezest, &c., in Torda-Aranyos, and at Erdőfüle, Vargyas, and Száldobos in Udvarhely. Sulphur pyrites is worked at Csungány, Kazanesd, Nyavalyasfalva, and, in conjunction with gold and silver mines, at Tekerő, all in Hunyad, while there is also an output from Gödemesterháza in Maros-Torda and Kenesd in Alsó-Fehér. Quicksilver occurs at Nagyompoly in Alsó-Fehér.

*Iron.*—The rich iron deposits of the counties of Hunyad and Nagy-Küküllő are a continuation of those of the eastern part of the Banat. In Hunyad they lie around Govasdia, Vajda-Hunyad, and Vika, in Nagy-Küküllő in the neighbourhood of Alsó-Rakás, and in Udvarhely in the district of Lövéte. There are small workings in the county of Torda-Aranyos, and, of iron pyrites, in Besztercze-Naszód at Óradna. By far the greater part of the production of ore, nearly 250,000 metric tons out of a total of rather more than 300,000 tons, comes from the State mines.

*Coal.*—Very little pit-coal is produced in Transylvania, and that mainly at Petrozsény in Hunyad, though the beds there, as well as at Schyltal, are said to be almost unused. Transylvania, however, supplies nearly a fourth of the total production of brown coal in Hungary, and takes second place among the

mining districts. The richest coal-mines are in the south of the county of Hunyad, round Petrozsény, Petrilla, Livazény, Vulkán, Urikány, and Lupeny. Vajda-Hunyad is another important centre in the same county. The other notable coal counties are the group in the south-east, Udvarhely, Brassó, Háromszék, and Csík, with the northern group, Szolnok-Doboka, Kolozs, and Torda-Aranyos.

*Salt.*—Hungary is exceedingly rich in salt and Transylvania is the richest salt district, the beds forming part of the vast deposits that stretch from Rumania to Galicia. Salt is a Government monopoly, and the mines are exclusively worked by the State, but the actual output bears no proper relation to the vast store available. Of a total output from Hungary in 1912 of over 270,000 metric tons, valued at about 38,000,000 kr., the Transylvanian deposits gave almost 160,000 metric tons, valued at nearly 17,700,000 kr.

The following table shows the position of the salt-mines and the amounts and values of different kinds produced during the year 1912. The whole district is officially known as that of Maros-Ujvár, which is the seat of the largest salt production in Hungary.

<i>County.</i>	<i>Centre.</i>	<i>Output in metric tons.</i>		<i>Value in 1,000 kr.</i>	<i>No. of workers.</i>
		<i>Rock-salt.</i>	<i>Industrial salt.</i>		
Alsó-Fehér . .	Maros-Ujvár	54,081·4	25,172·2	7,548	847
	Vizakna	1,894·6	—	260	74
Szolnok-Doboka .	Désakna	53,277·4	1,123	7,302	322
Udvarhely . .	Parajd	9,940	12,278·8	2,291	168
Torda-Aranyos .	Torda	2,150·2	—	295	96
Totals . .		121,343·6	38,574	17,696	1,507

*Oil.*—Of recent years a good deal of attention has been paid to the oil-fields of Hungary, and the rate of production has risen rapidly, though the results obtained are not yet of much importance. The chief oil-field is that at Bereczk in the county of Háromszék, while north and south of this place, at Sósmező and Zabola, are shallow wells which have been worked since the eighteenth century. Oil has also been found at Nagy-Szeben. There are petroleum refineries at Brassó and Maros-Vásárhely.

*Natural Gas.*—Possibly the great escapes of natural gas in certain places are due to the presence of petroleum. At Kissarmas, between Kolozsvár and Szászrégen, an escape of this kind has been brought under control and conducted by a pipe line to Maros-Ujvár, 20 miles to the south. There is said to be a yield of 1,000,000 cubic ft. per hour, giving a daily output worth £4,000. Analysis shows the gas to be a very clear methene or 'marsh gas'. At Torja and Málnás, both in Háromszék, as well as at some other places, such gases are being put to practical use in lighting. All natural gas is the property of the State.

#### (4) MANUFACTURES

*Metallurgical Industry.*—The great metallurgical district of Transylvania is the county of Hunyad. Here at Vajda-Hunyad are the important State ironworks. Three furnaces using charcoal produce about 50,000 metric tons of pig-iron yearly. An additional coke furnace, which is the largest furnace in Hungary, gives a daily output of 100 metric tons of white Bessemer pig. At Kis-Kalán two furnaces were erected near the Piski-Petrozsény railway in order to use the pit-coal of the latter place, but the results were not successful. Finally, only one furnace was retained in service with a fuel of mixed coke and charcoal to produce yearly 10,000 metric tons; about 2,560 metric tons of cast metal for constructional purposes, machines, and trade purposes are turned out yearly. At Szent-Keresztbánya in the county of Udvarhely is an installation which treats the brown iron ore found on the borders of Homoród-Lövéte. Its production in 1913 was:

	<i>Amount in quintals.</i>	<i>Value in kr.</i>
Cast-iron stoves . . . . .	5,124	143,494·00
Commercial castings . . . . .	32,420	77,808·00
Pig-iron . . . . .	156	1,951·88
Hammer-forged wares . . . . .	659	32,297·06
Iron ore . . . . .	28,507	45,041·06



Two hundred and twelve workmen were employed in the shops and sixty in the mines.

In Hunyad again, at Kudzsir, about 15 km. south of the station on the main line at Alkenyér, with which it is connected by a branch, are the Royal Hungarian Iron and Steel Works, from which the production in 1913 was 65,126 quintals of commercial iron, 6,551 of cast steel, 49 of cast iron, 1,498 of crucible tool-steel, and 1,459 of coarse, Brescian, spring and 'pinewood' steel. The number of workers in January 1913 was 642.

There is an iron-works also at Oláhlápos in the county of Szolnok-Doboka.

Copper is smelted at Orlat in Szeben, and copper wares are made at Nagy-Szeben, but the copper industry as a whole is not in a forward condition.

*Textile Industry.*—The only important textile industry is in wool, and that is mainly developed in the Saxon districts, especially at Brassó, in the county of Szeben at Nagy-Szeben, Orlár, Guraró, and Czód, and in that of Nagy-Küküllő at Segesvár and Nagy-Disznód. These are just the districts in which, as noted already, sheep are most numerous. The Brassó cloth is in great demand among the Rumanian peasants. House linen and canvas are made in every village, generally, however, for personal use. Neckerchiefs and gaily coloured embroideries are produced in Nagy-Szeben, Brassó, the old-fashioned district of Kalotaszeg in Kolozs, and at Nagy-Disznód in Szeben.

*Miscellaneous Industries.*—Other industries include the making of *leather* at Besztercze in the county of Besztercze-Naszód and at Szent Agota in Nagy-Küküllő; of *paper* at Peterfalva in Szeben and Borgóprund in Besztercze-Naszód; and of *earthenware*, including the finer wares, principally at Kolozsvár, at Görgény-Szent-Imre in Maros-Torda, and at several places in the county of Brassó, including Keresztenyfalva and the town of Brassó.

The earliest of the *sugar* factories in Transylvania dates from the period, some thirty years ago, when the industry in Hungary began to develop out of its torpid

condition. The factories are at Botfalú in Brassó, Maros-Vásárhely in Maros-Torda, and, since 1911, at Nagybecskerek in Torontál. These three employed, in 1913, 2,456 workers and produced 281,708 quintals of raw sugar, a slight total increase in both cases over the figures for the previous year.

The greatest *chemical* undertakings are those at Valál-Bálványos in Háromszék and at Maros-Ujvár (Ammoniak-Sóda-Fabriks A/G), the great salt district in Alsó-Fehér.

The *tobacco* factory at Kolozsvár employs over 1,100 workers and that at Sepsiszentgyörgy nearly 800.

### (C) COMMERCE

#### (a) *Principal Branches of Trade*

The domestic trade of the country is fairly active, food products and timber being the principal commodities marketed. Trading in butter, cheese, &c., is mainly in the hands of Rumanians (Vlachs) from the mountain districts. Timber for building and in boards comes chiefly from the Szeklers in the counties of Csik and Háromszék.

#### (b) *Towns*

The largest town in Transylvania is Kolozsvár (Klausenburg), in the county of Kolozs, with a population of over 60,000, where there is a Chamber of Commerce and Industry. It has many corn and flour mills, chemical and soap factories, saw-mills and distilleries. Brassó (Kronstadt) from its position naturally does a great trade with Rumania and Bulgaria, and has a wide range of industries in wool, wood, paper, flour, sugar, alcohol, &c.; here, too, is a Chamber of Commerce. In the county of Maros-Torda are the great centres of the timber industry, Szász-Régen (population, 7,310 in 1910) and Magyar-Régen, and Maros-Vásárhely (population, 25,517 in 1910). The last of these towns has a Chamber of Commerce and

possesses many saw-mills and factories for the making of doors and windows and musical instruments of wood. Dés in Szolnok-Doboka is the greatest horse-breeding place in Transylvania, but Szatmár-Németi, with a population of nearly 35,000, is the commercial centre of the Szamos region. Tövis is the centre of the vine-growing district. An important and ancient seat of woollen manufactures is Nagy-Disznód (Heltau) in Szeben; its industries are almost exclusively in the spinning of wool and hair and the weaving of cloth of a coarse quality, which has a great sale both in Hungary and Austria.

#### (D) FINANCE

*Banking.*—There were in Transylvania in 1912 altogether 861 institutions doing business in loans. Of these, 275 were banks proper, savings-banks, and land-banks, while 586 were mutual loan associations. The latter were most numerous in Nagy-Küküllő, Szeben, and Kolozs; the first category is more prominent in Hunyad and Szolnok-Doboka. The Austro-Hungarian Bank has branches at Brassó, Maros-Vásárhely, and Nagy-Szeben, each having three sub-offices, and one at Kolozsvár with five sub-offices.

#### (E) GENERAL REMARKS

British goods in Hungary are generally high-priced, being retailed mainly by high-class firms, while British trade methods are too indirect and regardless of conveniences to the importer, such as longer credit and the inclusion of freight and duty in the prices. Necessarily these considerations apply to Transylvania. Thus, while genuine British goods are much appreciated in Hungary, the amount imported shows little real increase. The British Vice-Consul at Kolozsvár has reported that goods of the following classes find a sale in Transylvania: all sorts of woollen, linen, cotton and drapery goods, particularly British worsted

goods, ready-made clothing and articles of dress with their accessories, sporting and athletic goods, hunting and fishing outfits, photographic articles, groceries and liquors, agricultural machinery, engineering specialities, motor-cars, bicycles, typewriting and sewing machines, tools and instruments generally, writing articles and high-class paper and stationery, sanitary and pharmaceutical goods, &c. Trade in these articles would be greatly stimulated and developed by the employment of agencies in Transylvania in direct contact with British firms and independent of Austrian middlemen.

## THE BANAT

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

The network of roads in the Banat is in extent not far below the proportion for Hungary proper. In 1912 there were 816.1 km. of State roads, 2,474.8 of municipal roads, and 3,405.5 km. of communal public roads. In addition, there were 58 km. of roads in connexion with railways—a total of 6,754.4 km. This represented 24 km. of road per 100 square km. and 43 km. for every 10,000 inhabitants, as compared with 29.4 km. and 45 km. respectively for Hungary as a whole. There are, further, 6,294 km. of communal paths and tracks. The 1913 figures showed a slight decrease in the totals, due no doubt to changes in the classification.

#### (b) *Rivers and Canals*

As the Banat is bounded on its northern frontier by the River Maros, on its western by the Tisza, and on its southern by the Danube, it may be said to be unusually well served in the important matter of navigable waterways. The Maros becomes navigable for rafts and barges in Transylvania, and for river steamers at Arad, on the northern bank, just across the river from the



Banat frontier, and it remains navigable for steamers until it joins the Tisza at Szeged. The Tisza is navigable for steamers for its entire distance along the western boundary of the Banat as far as the Danube; and the Danube is in turn navigable for steamers for its entire distance along the southern frontier. Further, the Banat contains the important Béga Canal, which starts north of Nagybecskerek and extends past Temesvár to a point near Facset. The southern end of the canal is connected with the River Béga, which flows into the Tisza near Titel. The Béga Canal thus serves to connect the entire Temesvár area with the Tisza, and the river and canal are navigable for steamers from Temesvár to the River Tisza, a distance of 115 km., or 71·5 miles. The canal is the great avenue for the transport of cereals in the Banat. Similarly the Berzava Canal, 14 km. long, on the Berzava river, serves for the transport of timber to the Tisza. The Temes is navigable for barges from Bótos to the Danube (88 km.) and for steamers from Pancsova to the Danube (3 km.).

### (c) *Railways*

In 1913 the railways in the Banat amounted to 1,962·4 km., of which 639·1 km. were directly owned by the State and 1,301 km. were worked by the State on behalf of private companies. The small remaining mileage was owned and worked by private companies. This total represented 6·9 km. of railway per 100 square km. and 12·4 km. per 10,000 inhabitants, as compared with 6·6 km. and 10·1 km. respectively for Hungary as a whole.

The Banat is thus well supplied with railways, with the exception, as might be expected, of the mountainous Krassó country. The great main lines are the two originating from Buda-Pest. That to Orsova and the 'Iron Gate' on the Danube crosses the Tisza at Szeged in the north-west corner, whence a branch goes down the left bank of the Tisza to Nagybecskerek, the seat

of the Torontál local government and, crossing the Béga river, continues to Versecz in one direction and in the other to Pancsova at the junction of the Temes and the Danube nearly opposite Belgrade. The main line from Szeged has another connexion with this Nagybeckerek branch at Nagyikinda, and itself passes on to Temesvár, the principal city of the Banat, and eastwards to Lugos, the administrative centre of the county of Krassó-Szörény. It then follows the line of the Temes river southward through Karánsebes into the mountainous district, crosses the watershed between the Temes and the Béga into the valley of the Cerna, and so proceeds to Orsova, the Danube, and Rumania. One branch from Lugos and another from Karánsebes link up this main line with the Transylvanian railway system.

The other line from Buda-Pest enters from the north over the Maros at Arad and traverses the Banat about midway from north to south, passing through Temesvár and Versecz to Báziás on the Danube, which is its terminus. At Vojtek a branch goes off to the south-east and follows the Berzava river to the great iron district of Resiczabánya. Half-way between Versecz and Báziás another branch winds in many curves up to Anina, the other great metal and mineral region. A line has been projected to make a direct connexion between Anina and Resiczabánya.

Up to the limits of the mountain area the main lines are interconnected by many branches, and thus Pancsova is linked up also with Lugos through Versecz and with Temesvár, while from the Pancsova-Versecz line a branch to Temeskubin gives another connexion with the Danube, nearly opposite the line starting from Semendria in Serbia. In the middle and west there is thus a network of railways with Temesvár as a centre of radiating lines, Versecz and Nagybeckerek being the other important junctions.

For narrow-gauge railways in the mining districts, see the section on minerals, pp. 66, 67.

*(d) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

In 1912 the Banat contained 351 post offices, 566 telegraph offices, and 5,774 telephone stations. These figures represent for every 100,000 inhabitants 15·3 post offices, 31·7 telegraph offices, and 825 telephone stations, as compared with 21·8, 23·5, and 356·7 respectively for Hungary as a whole.

**(B) INDUSTRY****(1) LABOUR**

*Labour Conditions.*—Labour conditions in Hungary are not good and earnings are low. This is particularly the case in agriculture and home industries. Factory laws are not administered rigidly. The maximum working day for factories has been fixed at eleven hours, but the general practice exceeds this limit. Miners are supposed to have a nine-hours shift. Workers in metals are among the best paid, yet the rate varies considerably, and neither in this nor any other industry are the wages regulated by the profits; e.g. the tobacco industry yields high profits to the State, yet it is among the worst paid. The wages paid in the metal district of the Banat are fairly good as a whole for that class of labour in Hungary, though the maximum rate is the lowest. Men earned in 1912 at most 455 fillers, or about 3s. 9d. a day, at the lowest 229 fillers, or about half the maximum rate. Women had from 1s. 8d. a day (200 fillers) to about 9d., and children from 160 fillers to 90 fillers, or 1s. 4d. to 9d. Wages in textile industries fall much below these rates. Agricultural male workers were obtaining in Hungary in 1904 on an average 125 fillers, or 1s. 0½d., per day with board, or 162 fillers, about 1s. 4d., without board, while women were paid from 81 to 115 fillers, according as they were boarded or not, the rates varying with the season. In the neighbourhood of a town like Pancsova rates were relatively higher, women getting 145 fillers, or 1s. 2½d., per day without



board, and at Versecz about 6*d.* more. But in other districts sums between 70 and 77 fillers, or 7*d.* to 7½*d.*, were more usual for female labourers. As a whole, indeed, labour conditions in the Banat are bad even in comparison with the rest of Hungary except Transylvania, where they are equally unsatisfactory (see above, pp. 45, 46). Meat is a luxury with the agricultural class; and in some districts these have to content themselves with potatoes and maize, with the addition of milk and butter in the spring and summer. As do the workers in general, they indulge largely in spirits when they are procurable.

*Emigration.*—As a result of the conditions described, emigration has long been a serious problem in Hungary, affecting mainly, however, the agricultural districts, and due in general to the bad conditions there,—loss of land, uncertain employment, miserable wages, &c. These general factors are clearly illustrated in the case of the Banat, where the proportion of emigrants for 1913, 5·5 per 1,000 of the population, is fairly high, and would be very much higher but for the inclusion of the great mining county of Krassó-Szörény. The total of emigrants for the three counties in 1913 was 8,801; but of this number 7,779 were from the counties of Torontál and Temes, over 3,000 coming from the wholly agricultural county of Torontál alone. Krassó-Szörény, well provided with steady employment in its mines and iron and steel works, sent 1,022 or 2·2 per 1,000 of its population. Of the different races, according to language, 4,315 were classified as Germans, 2,512 as Rumanians (Vlachs), 1,138 as Serbs, and 667 as Magyars, the small remainder being allotted to the other local peoples. America was the destination of the bulk of the emigrants, namely 8,198 persons, while less than 290 went to Rumania. These figures show, however, a considerable decrease, nearly a fourth on the sum total, from those of the previous year. The Hungarians generally go abroad to make a fortune and then return home. There is thus a steady inflow of returning emigrants, amounting in 1913 to 2,453, in



proportions roughly similar to those for emigration, but this inflow does not seem to affect the labour market as a whole. Of immigrants proper there were in the same year 345, of whom 253 were from countries other than Austria (92), and 225 were neither Germans, Poles, Czechs, nor Italians.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

### (a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The surface of the Banat as a whole is almost equally divided between cultivated land or land under wood and natural meadow or waste. The latter conditions are mostly to be found in the mountainous country of the south-east. Cultivated ground, including gardens and vineyards, occupies 55·3 per cent. of the total extent.

*Chief Crops.*—The principal crops are maize and wheat, the former predominating, and the two together constitute about two-thirds of the total grain crop. The western Banat, especially Torontál, is indeed one of the most prolific districts of Hungary for both wheat and maize, and its wheat is much favoured on the European corn exchanges. Near Temesvár there is an average return of 1·65 metric tons of wheat per hectare, a return very near the highest rate for Hungary as a whole, which is rather over 1·7 metric tons per hectare. The other grains are grown in relatively small quantities. Oats and fodder amount to 12·6 per cent. ; rye is the smallest of all the crops. There is no great amount of beetroot. The figures of production of these crops for 1913 are as follows :

<i>Crop.</i>	BANAT.			HUNGARY.
	<i>Production in metric tons.</i>	<i>Average per hectare in metric tons.</i>	<i>Percentage of total Hungarian crop.</i>	<i>Average per hectare in metric tons.</i>
Wheat . . .	650,441·6	1·04	14·3	1·32
Rye . . .	17,142·0	0·9	1·2	1·22
Barley . . .	58,400·2	1·28	3·03	1·47
Oats . . .	162,780·8	1·14	10·5	1·21
Maize . . .	1,186,119·6	1·86	22·1	1·84
Potatoes . . .	131,030·3	5·37	2·4	7·89
Beetroot . . .	280,318·1	18·52	5·7	26·76

The returns of production (in metric tons) for the separate districts in 1913 are as follows:

<i>District.</i>	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Rye.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Maize.</i>	<i>Potatoes.</i>	<i>Beetroot.</i>
Krassó-Szörény . . .	31,842.6	1,823.2	2,787.6	31,422.5	123,653.7	20,473.5	—
Temes . . .	161,062.3	8,429.6	20,268.1	54,910	341,649.3	25,180.6	16,969.1
Temesvár (municipality) .	1,949.4	186.2	352.5	757.9	3,397.5	900	1,200
Versecz (municipality) .	1,505.4	2.8	250	1,100	18,423.6	280	—
Torontál . . .	450,655.5	—	29,948	74,423.9	685,087.2	83,716.7	262,124
Pancsova (municipality) .	3,426.4	6,700.2	1,194	166.5	13,908.3	479.5	25
Total for Banat . . .	650,441.6	17,142	54,800.2	162,780.8	1,186,119.6	131,030.3	280,318.1
Total for Hungary . . .	4,554,538.4	1,422,248.7	1,805,967.8	1,544,004.1	5,360,308.4	5,450,608.6	4,865,042.8

*Wine.*—The Banat is not one of the three great wine-growing districts of Hungary, but comes close after these. In 1913 the 29,825 hectares under vines, which is equivalent to 8.02 per cent. of the Hungarian vineyard area, produced 672,063 hectolitres of wine, or an average of 22.5 hectolitres per hectare, which was almost double the average yield (11.9 hectolitres) of Hungary as a whole and 15.2 per cent. of the total Hungarian yield. But viticulture is not now a prosperous industry in Hungary.

*Tobacco.*—Though the Banat is well suited to the raising of tobacco, the cultivation of that plant, as in other parts of Hungary, has declined in recent years. Between 1909 and 1913 the number of growers decreased considerably, the hectares under cultivation fell from 2,714 to 1,883, and the production by 700 metric tons. In 1913 the area planted was 3.9 per cent. of the whole tobacco area of Hungary, and the yield 4.6 per cent. of the total for the whole country. (See also below, p. 73.)

*Silk.*—The climate of Hungary is well suited to the silk-worm, but the industry is of comparatively recent origin. At all stages the silk-worm and its product are watched over and encouraged by the Government, and the result has been an enormous increase in the production of cocoons during the past forty years. In the Banat, silk-worms are raised in several districts, but chiefly in Torontál and Temes. There are 24,543 families engaged in the business, and the 441,859 kg. of cocoons produced in 1912 represented about one-third of the quantity and value of the total amounts for Hungary. Depots for the collection and treatment of the cocoons are found at Pancsova, Versecz, and Temesvár. (See also below, p. 73.)

*Honey and Wax.*—The Government has also encouraged bee-keeping, and in 1912 the Banat contributed 17.8 per cent. of the total value of the Hungarian products, being 489 metric tons of the honey and 19 metric tons of the wax, a share valued at 536,400 kr.

*Live Stock.*—The animal population of the Banat

was shown by the last census in 1911 to be as follows :

Horned cattle . . . .	483,256	Goats . . . .	49,164
Horses . . . .	318,059	Pigs . . . .	646,698
Donkeys . . . .	1,712	Sheep . . . .	1,185,796
Mules . . . .	63		

These figures show a slight increase on the previous census return (1895).

(b) *Forestry*

The Banat is one of the forest regions of Hungary, but the forest is in the main confined to the eastern half, particularly the mountainous south-eastern district. It must be remembered, too, that forest statistics include all timber grown whatsoever, whether mere coppice or brushwood or forest proper. The total area in the Banat under forest in this sense is 589,441 hectares, or 6.6 per cent. of the total forest area of Hungary. But of this extent 512,074 hectares are in the county of Krassó-Szörény and 67,601 hectares in that of Temes, and these counties thus account for the great bulk, if not almost the whole, of the really valuable timber in the country. Of the total area, by far the greater part, 494,686 hectares, is under State direction. As in Hungary generally, the beech, the least valuable tree, outnumbers all others, oak coming next, while the proportion of pines and firs is small. Round Resiczabánya in the south of Krassó-Szörény the mountain-sides and plains on the west are clothed with thick forests of oak, the mountain slopes on the east with beech interspersed with areas of pine and other coniferous trees. This is the heart of the mineral district of the Banat, where the State railway owns 330,000 acres of land, two-thirds of which are covered with forest. The company conserves its forests carefully and makes provision for new growth. Access to its forests has been provided on all sides by means of timber roads, aerial roads, and dry chutes, while the Berzava river and canal serve for the transport of such timber as is not used on the spot.



### (3) MINERALS

The mineral wealth of the Banat, which is very great, is concentrated in the mountain region of the south-east, the southern part of the country of Krassó-Szörény. Tin, lead, and zinc are found in small quantities; there are argentiferous copper-mines at Oraviczabánya and Uj-Moldova; and scattered nodules of copper peroxide in the Csiklova district are rich enough to be worked and disposed of to forges and shops elsewhere. But the real wealth of the region is in iron ore and coal, of which there is normally a yearly output of about 200,000 tons of ore and 420,000 tons of coal. The bulk of this is from the property of the State railways, which here purchased from the Treasury in 1885 an area of 330,000 acres rich in coal and iron ore.

*Iron.*—The main iron-field is that of the Vaskő-Dognácska district, extending for about 9 kilometres between the Elizabeth and Vasopega Mountains. The important mining sites are at Vaskő, Resiczabánya, Német-Bogsán, Moravicza, and Dognácska, the last two being connected by a narrow-gauge railway. The ore occurs both in nodules and continuous bands, and includes iron oxide, red oligist, and limonite. Iron pyrites, too, is mined farther south. The ore workings are both open and in pits, the method being decided by the lie and depth of the ferriferous strata and the configuration of the surface. The ore is removed by inclined galleries and the inter-working of empty and full wagons. Other iron workings of an important character lie around Nadrág and Istvánhegy, in the neighbourhood of Gavosdia, and, in the basin of the Cerna, at Jablanicza and Ruskicza. The amount of iron ore about Resiczabánya alone seems inexhaustible.

*Coal.*—The coal-fields are in the immediate neighbourhood of the ore deposits, which is of course an enormous advantage in working the ore. Owing to the local supplies of coal and wood, the works in this district are self-supporting in the matter of fuel, which can be said of no other metal concerns in Hungary. Advan-

tageous, too, are the neighbouring deposits of lime and clay at Resiczabánya, the latter being probably unsurpassed for the making of bricks. Further, the coal is of excellent quality, in contrast with the supply elsewhere in Hungary, which is usually in the form of lignite. Thus the Banat coal-field contributes about one-third of the amount of pit-coal for the whole kingdom and 40·3 per cent. of the total value. Anina is a great coal centre, its Liassic coal, which is very cohesive, being particularly valuable for the production of coke; but there are important collieries also at Resiczabánya. At Anina there are six pits varying in depth between 400 and 500 metres (1,650 ft.), which send up about 300,000 tons annually. In the Szekul valley and at Domány the Carboniferous measures are worked in shafts 500 metres deep, and analysis of the Domány coal shows it closely comparable to that of Merthyr: it contains 66·76 per cent. of solid carbon. The deepest seams occur at Kölnik, Klokodics, and Nermeth, where, however, the coal is less rich in carbon than that of Szekul or Domány. The coal-fields of Szekul, Domány, and Vaskö are connected with the important steel-works at Resiczabánya by means of a narrow-gauge line—950 mm.—about 100 km. long.

The great bulk of the coal deposits belong to the State railways, but there are also some twelve other companies working coal in the districts of Bozovics, Bania, Berzászka, Klokodics, Kuptore, Osopot, Szvienia, Uj-Bánya, Dubova, and Ogradena.

*Lignite.*—Krassó-Szörény is the only district in southern Hungary in which lignite is found. The amount raised is not great. It is worked by the State Railway Co. at Mehádia, and there are other workings of no great importance at Bozovics, Voiszlova, Jablanicza, Golecz, Kazánsebes, Illova, and Laposnicel.

#### (4) MANUFACTURES

*Iron and Steel Industry.*—Iron and steel manufactures are concentrated upon the sites of the principal deposits of iron ore and coal, at Resicza-Anina, Nadrág-Gavosdia,

and Ruskicza. The steel-works at Resiczabánya and the iron-works at Anina, 14 miles south of Resiczabánya, with their associated workshops, are the property of the Privileged Austro-Hungarian State Railway Co. In addition to the excellent supplies of good coal the company also possess extensive forests in the neighbourhood, from which are produced annually 4,125,000 bushels of charcoal for use in the blast-furnaces of Resiczabánya and Anina. For the preparation of coke there are 60 ovens at Resiczabánya and 84 at Anina, with a yearly output together of 110,000 tons, of which Anina is credited with 80,000 tons.

Anina, however, is occupied in the production of cast and puddled iron and such articles as are proper to this stage of manufacture. Of blast-furnaces there are two, one for coke with a capacity of 60 tons, and one for charcoal of 40 tons. Their yearly output is 35,000 tons of raw iron, grey pig, and refined white for puddling. The puddling furnaces, numbering seven double and one single, are direct heated; but it was proposed (1907) to transfer them to Resiczabánya. Besides the heavy engineering work, the foundry turns out castings for general purposes, such as builders' iron ware, stoves, &c., the amount varying from 12,000 to 15,000 tons yearly; as well as a considerable amount of enamelled cast-iron goods. There is also a nail and screw factory which produces annually about 2,500 tons of finished articles.

Resiczabánya is characterized by its steel-making plant, which for pig-iron even draws upon the resources of Anina, though its own yearly output of iron runs to 110,000 tons, produced from two charcoal furnaces with a capacity of 65 tons each and two coke furnaces, each of 120 tons. The steel plant comprises three Bessemer converters, each of 10 tons capacity, producing annually about 25,000 tons, three Martin-Siemens open hearths which produce the bulk of the metal, and crucible shops; and the annual output of steel is 100,000 tons, a proportion of which is exported to Italy and Russia and even to England.



Most of the steel, however, goes to various forms of local production. Resiczabánya is, indeed, the southernmost of the great steel-works of Europe and the last available place for the manufacture of heavy guns and armour forgings. Its ordnance factory also provides field-guns, projectiles, and transport wagons. Much railway material is made there, and also all the high-speed equipment used on Hungarian railways. The output of acid steel from the Bessemer converters is almost entirely absorbed in the local manufacture of steel rails; while much of the crucible steel goes to the special tire-mill, where the work turned out is probably the finest in Europe. Resiczabánya is, indeed, the only source in Hungary for steel tires for railroad wheels. The workshops produce sets of wheels and axles for locomotives and rolling stock, bolts, screws, and nails, structural work for bridges and roofs, gas-engines and other kinds of mechanical material, the annual output varying from 15,000 to 20,000 tons, of which bridge and boiler work account for 3,000 to 5,000 tons. The number of workmen employed in 1913 in the forges and workshops of the company was 5,122, and in the mines and other workings 3,982.

A further enterprise of the State Railway Co. is the manufacture of agricultural implements at Román-Bogsán, which provides every year 12,000 finished ploughs, 5,000 plough frames, and 200 to 300 tons of other agricultural machines.

In addition to the great plant of the State railways there are in Krassó-Szörény several important iron-works. At Ruszkieza is a foundry with a yearly production of 2,345 metric tons of castings. Nándorhegy possesses a steel-works and rolling-mills which turn out yearly 15,000 metric tons of rolled metal. At Nadrág-Gavosdia are blast-furnaces, foundries, rolling- and plate-mills, galvanizing equipment, nickel-plating and tin-plate works, nail shops, &c. They produce 4,000 metric tons of foundry pig, 5,000 metric tons of castings and stoves, and 8,000 metric tons of sheet-metal, part of which is galvanized. A railway of 76 cm.



gauge, 26 km. long, connects Nadrág with Gavosdia on the main line.

Agricultural implements also are made at Ruszka-banya, Bodza, and Oraviczabánya.

*Timber Industry.*—Closely connected with the mineral and metal industries is the treatment of the great local resources in timber (cf. p. 67). The State railways draw upon these to the extent of 500,000 cubic metres annually, of which 50 per cent. is carbonized for use in the furnaces and 30 per cent. is used in heating. At Resiczabánya, too, there are retorts for recovery of the by-products developed in the process of carbonizing. Of the rest of the worked timber 10 per cent. goes in frame timbers and pit-props, and 10 per cent. is absorbed in constructional work. This constructional timber is worked up in the timber-mills at Ferenczfalva, Román-Bogsán, Anina, Oraviczabánya, Szaszka, and Moldova. Wood is further used at Temesvár, Lugos, and Karánsebes in the making of such articles as casks, lasts and trees for boots, &c.

*Miscellaneous Industries.*—The other great industries of the Banat are based upon its agricultural riches. The flour-mills at Oraviczabánya and Bogsán belong to the State Railway Co. and produce about 10,000 tons of flour each year; there are similar mills at Temesvár, Lugos, Detta, Versecz, and Pancsova. As a whole the county of Torontál possesses 113 steam mills and that of Temes 82. The State Railway Co. also possess cement works at Oraviczabánya, which turn out yearly 2,500 tons of cement. Their brick-kilns in Resiczabánya have an annual output of 1,800 tons of tiles and nearly 1,000 tons of firebricks. Bricks are also made from the granulated blast-furnace slag to the number of 4,000,000 annually. In Koleza and Cravicza the company have lime-kilns which give, respectively, 6,000 and 8,000 tons of burnt lime each year. At Resiczabánya the charcoal plant is used for the preparation of wood-alcohol, to the extent of 845 quarts daily, which is disposed of mainly to German dye-works. Spirits are distilled also at Temesvár, Lugos, Versecz, and Karánsebes.

while Versecz is the most notable centre for wine, and further turns out machinery for distilling and mill machinery generally. The manufacture of tobacco, which is a State monopoly, occupies over 1,500 workers at Temesvár. Of the four State-established silk-spinning factories, one of the earliest was set up at Pancsova. These factories are intended to attract foreign capital and technical skill, and to this end are given special privileges as to prices, taxes, and tariffs. They are all leased to foreigners ; that at Pancsova to a Frenchman.

Temesvár is the leading industrial city, and in addition to the occupations already mentioned, possesses factories for textiles, tiles, and mosaics, and such wood wares as furniture and matches. Its matches are exported as far as Asia.

### (5) POWER

On the River Berzava are electric turbines driven by water-power at Resicza-Nuta, which develop 300 horse-power for operating 25 drills at the Resiczabánya workings and aiding in the work of haulage. At Anina the 2,500 steam horse-power generated in the boilers is transmitted to the collieries and iron-works by electric current.

### (C) FINANCE

*Banking.*—Of various forms of banking institutions there were in 1912 in the Banat, including the towns, 642. Of these 248 were banks, savings-banks, and land-banks and 394 mutual credit associations, the predominance of the latter being more marked in the purely agricultural county of Torontál. The Austro-Hungarian Bank has a branch at Pancsova, one at Temesvár with two sub-offices, and another at Versecz with three sub-offices.

## APPENDIX

TABLE I.—DISTRIBUTION OF RACES IN TRANSYLVANIA AND THE BANAT

Magyars.	Germans.	Slovaks.	Rumanians.	Ruthenians.	Croats.	Serbs.	Others.							
N umbers.	N umbers.	N umbers.	N umbers.	N umbers.	N umbers.	N umbers.	N umbers.							
%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%							
Kis-Küküllő.	39,107	17.6	7,269	3.3	184	0.1	171,483	77.4	8	0.0	18	0.0	3,541	1.6
Alsó-Fehér .	10,737	8.4	25,609	20.0	37	0.0	87,564	68.5	213	0.2	6	0.0	3,666	2.9
Beszt.-Naszód	35,372	35.0	29,542	29.2	184	0.2	35,091	34.7	18	0.0	22	0.0	951	0.9
Brassó .	125,888	86.4	1,080	0.7	85	0.1	18,032	12.4	188	0.1	3	0.0	431	0.3
Csik .	6,466	6.8	3,236	3.4	55	0.1	84,436	88.7	20	0.0	3	0.0	953	1.0
Fogarasz .	123,518	83.4	617	0.4	202	0.2	22,963	15.5	144	0.1	14	0.0	607	0.4
Háromszék .	52,720	15.5	8,101	2.4	1,024	0.3	271,675	79.9	606	0.2	140	0.0	5,674	1.7
Hunyád .	34,902	30.1	20,272	17.5	31	0.0	55,585	47.9	1	0.0	2	0.0	5,294	4.5
Kis-Küküllő	60,735	26.9	6,710	3.0	62	0.0	153,717	68.0	7	0.0	3	0.0	4,624	2.1
Kolozs .	50,704	83.4	1,676	2.8	107	0.2	7,562	12.4	6	0.0	34	0.0	678	1.1
Kolozsvár	111,376	57.4	7,706	4.0	47	0.0	70,192	36.2	172	0.1	18	0.0	4,553	2.3
Maros-Torda	22,790	89.3	606	2.4	32	0.1	1,717	6.7	2	0.0	15	0.1	338	1.3
M.-Vásárhely	18,474	12.4	62,224	41.8	63	0.1	60,381	40.6	6	0.0	57	0.0	7,617	5.1
Nagy-Küküllő	10,159	5.7	49,757	28.1	154	0.1	113,672	64.3	205	0.1	84	0.0	2,795	1.6
Szeben .	52,181	20.7	6,902	2.7	42	0.0	189,443	75.2	154	0.1	9	0.0	3,198	1.3
Szolnok-Doboka	44,630	25.6	576	0.3	62	0.0	125,668	72.1	8	0.0	10	0.0	3,418	2.0
Torda-Aranyos	118,458	95.4	2,202	1.8	33	0.0	2,840	2.3	1	0.0	5	0.0	599	0.5
Udvarehely .	918,217	34.3	234,085	8.7	2,404	0.1	1,472,021	55.0	1,759	0.1	421	0.0	48,937	1.8
Totals .	918,217	34.3	234,085	8.7	2,404	0.1	1,472,021	55.0	1,759	0.1	421	0.0	48,937	1.8
Tisza-Maros Szégye.														
Arad .	78,130	22.2	34,330	9.8	5,174	1.5	229,476	65.3	670	0.2	38	0.0	3,082	0.9
Arad (town)	46,085	73.0	4,365	6.9	277	0.4	10,279	16.3	7	0.0	32	0.0	305	0.5
Csanád	108,621	74.8	1,013	0.7	17,133	11.8	14,046	9.7	119	0.1	8	0.0	341	0.2
Krassó-Szőrény	33,787	7.3	55,883	12.0	2,908	0.6	336,082	72.1	2,351	0.5	319	0.1	14,674	4.3
Temes .	47,518	11.9	120,683	30.1	2,612	0.6	160,585	40.1	17	0.0	164	0.0	11,510	2.9
Temesvár	28,552	39.4	31,644	43.6	341	0.5	7,566	10.4	4	0.0	148	0.2	3,482	4.8
Verecz .	3,890	14.2	13,556	49.6	127	0.5	879	3.2	9	0.0	38	0.1	8,602	31.4
Torontál .	125,041	21.0	158,312	26.6	15,899	2.7	86,168	14.5	10	0.0	4,068	0.7	191,036	32.2
Pancsova	3,364	16.2	7,467	35.9	244	1.2	769	3.7	1	0.0	135	0.6	8,714	41.9
Totals .	474,988	22.2	427,253	19.9	44,715	2.1	845,850	39.5	3,188	0.1	4,950	0.2	290,434	13.6
Totals .	474,988	22.2	427,253	19.9	44,715	2.1	845,850	39.5	3,188	0.1	4,950	0.2	290,434	13.6
Totals .	918,217	34.3	234,085	8.7	2,404	0.1	1,472,021	55.0	1,759	0.1	421	0.0	48,937	1.8

TABLE II.—TRANSYLVANIA: CROP RETURNS (1913)

County.	Production (in metric quintals).					Average per hectare (in metric quintals).								
	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Maize.	Potatoes.	Beetroot.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Maize.	Pota- toes.	Beet- root.
Alsó-Fehér .	348,040	14,196	46,155	98,916	347,640	65,182	35,402	10.3	11.1	12.8	12.4	8.6	54.2	222.1
Beszterce- Naszód .	110,090	1,628	28,486	177,261	168,234	40,768	—	11.1	11.0	11.9	11.4	9.9	45.0	—
Brassó .	34,510	10,811	242,237	130,963	62,524	758,462	711,513	14.3	14.4	21.2	21.2	12.5	40.6	235.3
Csik .	19,352	68,549	138,572	189,443	10,866	234,484	7,400	10.5	9.3	13.7	13.5	8.9	71.4	252.1
Fogaras .	98,570	56,474	17,183	116,599	95,151	324,632	—	10.4	9.8	10.6	10.4	8.6	52.0	—
Háromszék .	51,096	34,034	239,613	237,430	61,083	457,798	200,843	8.9	8.7	14.2	14.0	7.6	75.9	224.9
Hunyad .	311,710	44,914	43,795	124,471	508,038	186,340	—	8.7	7.9	12.1	10.4	9.6	42.4	—
Kis-Küküllő .	145,850	7,472	35,586	72,048	222,788	32,278	2,530	10.9	11.9	12.3	10.8	8.7	46.6	96.4
Kolozs .	319,548	53,537	115,942	196,873	323,569	58,714	5,865	9.3	10.5	12.2	12.0	7.8	44.0	248.5
Kolozsvár (municipality)	5,947	1,127	7,821	7,298	27,900	2,520	700	12.0	11.6	15.0	15.5	15.6	62.6	243.3
Maros-Torda .	148,624	3,562	93,236	195,445	222,732	8,975	20,000	9.7	9.0	13.2	12.6	7.6	21.4	173.8
Maros-Vásár- hely (municipi- pality) .	282	6	7,092	240	1,944	—	2,800	11.8	6.0	15.7	13.9	7.0	—	173.8
Nagy-Küküllő .	211,552	8,268	24,825	180,048	302,023	208,243	63,246	10.2	9.0	12.2	13.0	9.1	70.4	264.8
Szeben .	181,556	12,946	60,948	129,114	269,764	319,419	28,330	11.7	11.5	17.0	14.0	12.6	94.2	235.6
Szolnok- Doboka .	202,307	16,023	41,758	225,476	388,200	29,347	12,044	7.9	8.8	10.5	10.4	7.2	29.5	167.5
Torda-Aranyos .	244,280	29,767	116,094	113,937	210,179	32,629	114,944	9.0	8.3	12.8	11.8	7.7	27.3	234.9
Udvarhely .	127,663	11,810	20,439	162,456	77,363	47,228	9,990	9.0	9.5	10.8	12.2	6.0	37.7	156.4
Totals and averages .	2,560,977	375,124	1,279,782	2,358,018	3,299,998	2,807,019	1,215,607	9.6	9.4	14.1	12.4	8.6	70.7	230.9
Totals and averages for all Hungary	45,545,384	14,222,487	18,059,678	15,440,041	53,603,084	54,506,086	48,650,428	13.2	12.2	14.7	12.1	18.4	78.9	267.6



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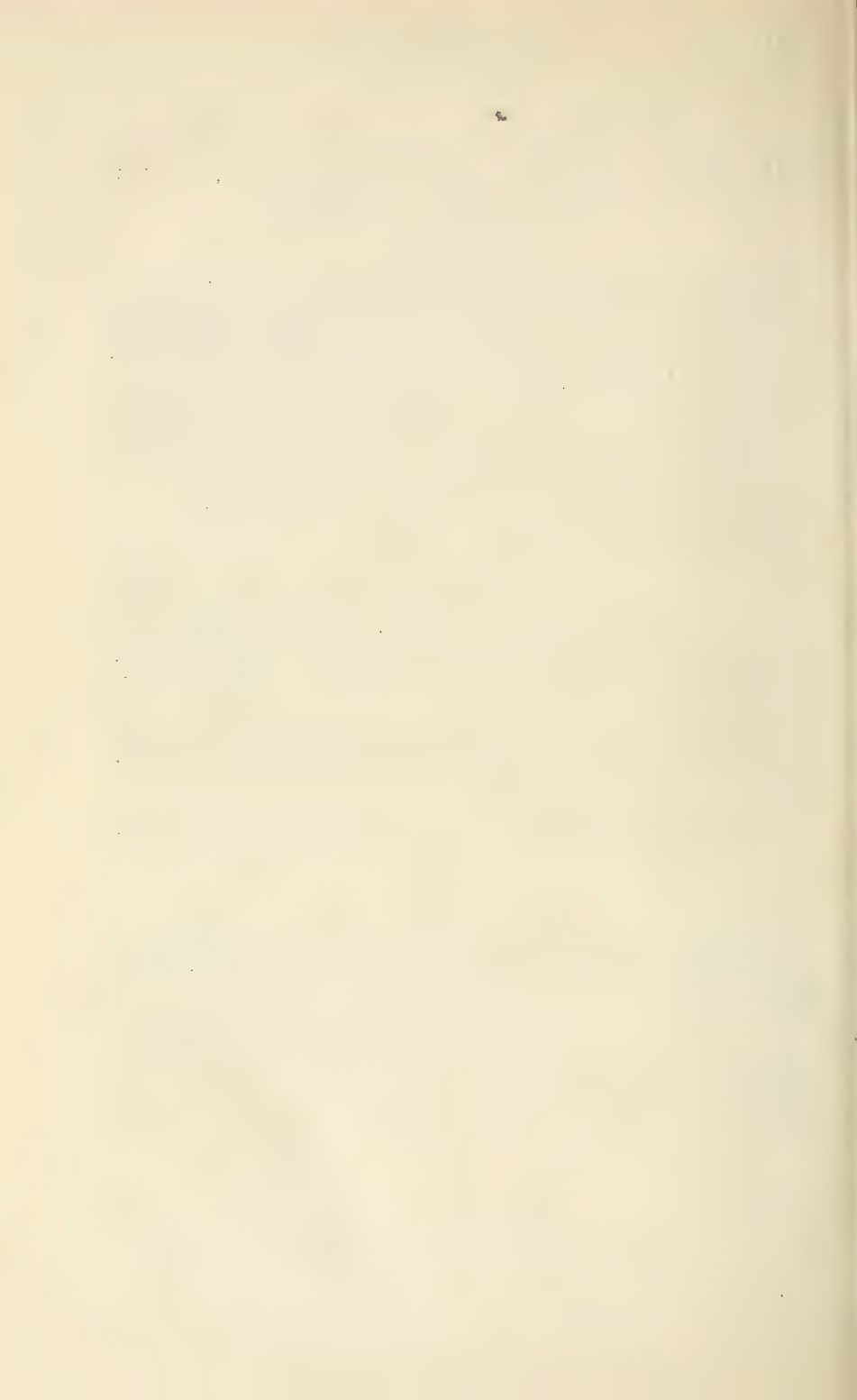
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### MAPS

Transylvania and the Banat are covered by four sheets (M. 34 Krakau, M. 35 Jitomir, L. 34 Buda-Pest, L. 35 Bucur-esti; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' Map published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

See also special map, 'Hungary and Croatia-Slavonia; internal divisions', issued by the War Office (G.S.G.S. No. 2917) in connexion with this series.

For Ethnography, see note on maps in *Austria, &c.* (No. 1 of this series), p. 28.



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# I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

## (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

HUNGARIAN RUTHENIA is that portion of north-eastern Hungary which is mainly inhabited by the Ruthenes or Little Russians, who also people eastern Galicia, the adjacent district across the Carpathians, and form a considerable element in the population of the Bukovina. Its limit on the north-east is the Carpathian boundary of Hungary from  $47^{\circ} 35'$  to  $48^{\circ} 55'$  north latitude. The internal boundary is indeterminate; but, for convenience, Ruthenia is here taken to consist of the three Hungarian counties, Máramaros, Bereg, and Ugocsa, with an area just under 6,000 square miles, i. e. just less than the area of the county of Yorkshire. It borders in the north-east on Galicia and the Bukovina, in the south on Transylvania, in the south-west on Magyaria, and in the west on Slovakia.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

North-eastern Bereg and Máramaros are mountainous areas, lying south-west of the Carpathian water-parting. The peaks increase in height from north-west to south-east, and the rivers flow in general to the south-west until they reach the Tisza (Theiss) or its tributary the Vissó, which themselves flow in a westerly or north-westerly direction. In Bereg, where the Tisza forms the boundary, the Latorcza is the main tributary. The surfaces of hills and valley bottoms tend to be almost horizontal plains divided by steep slopes leading from lower to higher levels.

Ugocsa and south-western Bereg have the typical alluvial and *loess* soils of the Alföld, or central Hungarian plain, and the mountain areas of Máramaros



and Bereg give rise to thin soils producing Alpine pasture on the level uplands and forests on the slopes.

### (3) CLIMATE

In Ruthenia, due allowance being made for the elevation of the Carpathians, the climate is similar to that of Hungary in general. The actual mean annual temperature is about 47° F. (8° C.) on the lower levels and 42° F. (5½° C.) in the highest parts. In January on the lowlands there are on the average 5° F. (3° C.) of frost, and in July the average temperature reaches 67° F. (19° C.). The mean annual range of temperature is thus about 40° F. (22° C.). On the lowlands the frost period lasts for four months. The Tisza at Máramaros-Sziget is usually frozen from December to the end of February, and may be frozen for a day or two in November. Snowfalls occur from October to April.

The total annual precipitation on the lowlands on the extreme west is between 24 and 28 inches (600 and 700 mm.), and the amount increases steadily with the elevation of the land to a maximum among the Carpathian crests of about 60 in. (1,500 mm.). The driest month is January on the heights and February in the valleys; the wettest month, on the average, is June, and (as in the Alföld) there is a second rainfall maximum in October.

### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Throughout Hungary the medical service, which is largely in the hands of the State or local authorities, is extremely inadequate, and in no part more so than in Ruthenia, which is far less favoured in this respect than Magyaria. Only 10 per cent. of deaths are of persons under treatment, and only 15 per cent. are certified by a doctor.

It may be taken that the Ruthenes are a hardy race, for, in spite of these conditions, their death-rate is little higher than that of the Magyars. The infantile mortality rate among them is considerably lower than among the Magyars of Ruthenia, being only 19 per

thousand living births, although it is associated with one of the highest birth-rates in Hungary (46 per thousand).

### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Racially, Ruthenia is by no means a unit, for of the two-thirds of a million inhabitants, less than a half are Ruthenes, nearly a third are Magyars, and about a sixth are Jews (a relatively high proportion).

The language statistics, according to the census of 1910, are as follows :

	<i>Ruthenes.</i>	<i>Magyars.</i>	<i>Rumanians.</i>	<i>Germans.</i>
Máramaros .	159,489 44·6%	52,964 14·8%	84,510 23·6%	59,552 16·7%
Ugocsa .	34,415 37·5%	42,677 46·5%	9,750 10·6%	4,632 5·1%
Bereg .	100,918 42·6%	113,090 47·8%	215 0·1%	20,722 8·8%
Ruthenia .	294,822 43%	208,731 30·5%	94,475 13·8%	84,906 12·2%

The balance of 5,137 persons (or some 0·5 per cent.) is made up of a few Slovaks, Croats, Serbs, and others. The figure of Magyar-speakers is swollen by the large number of town-dwelling Jews, who are usually entered as speaking the language locally dominant.

The Magyars proper are an outlying portion of the solid Magyar population of the Alföld, while the Ruthenes stand in a similar relation to the Ruthene population of Galicia and the Bukovina.

With the exception of two islands of German Jews, the Ruthenians occupy the whole of the land from the Hungarian boundary to a line which runs north-west and south-east just north of Munkács and Máramaros-Sziget. To the south-west of this line lies an area of Magyar population near Munkács, and there is a Rumanian district near Máramaros-Sziget.

It must be remembered that the Ruthenes included in the three counties under consideration comprise only about two-thirds of the total Ruthene population

of Hungary. The remaining third occupies the Carpathian country to the north-west. Consequently the Ruthenian linguistic boundary extends north-westwards from near Munkács to Bártfa, and then runs roughly parallel to the Galician frontier, terminating north of Leibicz; and the Ruthenian area extends along the Carpathians in a strip about 40 miles wide from 20° 30' to 24° 30' east longitude.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

The total population of Hungarian Ruthenia amounted in 1910 to 686,071; and of this number over 90 per cent. dwell in the country districts. The distribution of the people is governed by the elevation of the country. The population is thickest in the valleys and lowlands, but there are many mountain villages, and outlying homesteads occur up to a height of 3,300 ft. (1,000 metres).

The most thickly populated county is Ugocsa (196.5 persons per square mile), then follow Bereg (162.5) and Máramaros (95.5). The sparsely populated districts are Ruthenian, and the more densely populated Magyar or Jewish.

### *Towns*

The three most important towns are Máramaros-Sziget (pop. 21,370), Munkács (pop. 17,275), and Beregszász (pop. 12,933), all of which are situated in fertile river valleys. There seems nowadays to be a tendency for the people to move into the urban districts, all the above-mentioned towns having considerably increased their populations in recent years.

### *Movement*

In the Magyar urban localities the birth-rate is high, 38 per thousand, but lower than in the Magyar country districts, where the rate is 42 per thousand. The rate is higher still (46 per thousand) among the Ruthenes. The latter rate is equalled in Hungary

only by the birth-rate of the Serbs in Croatia-Slavonia.

In all the foregoing three cases the death-rate was 27 per thousand, which is moderately high. Consequently, the Ruthenes are shown to be the most prolific race in Hungary; and, further, as the rate of infantile mortality is low, their natural increase (19 per thousand) is the highest in Hungary. The nearest approach to this high rate is the 15 per thousand of the Magyars in rural Ruthenia and of the Magyars in Magyaria and the Banat.

*Emigration.*—The total number of emigrants from Ruthenia during the decade 1901–10 was 29,000, who were distributed as follows :

EMIGRANTS (PER CENT., OMITTING DECIMALS) 1901–10				
Nationalities	<i>Ruthenes.</i>	<i>Magyars.</i>	<i>Germans.</i> <sup>1</sup>	<i>Rumanians.</i>
	49	39	9	2
Destinations	<i>Rumania.</i>	<i>America.</i>		
	4	95		

The emigration of the Ruthenes and Magyars in comparison with their relative proportions of the population is excessive, and especially so among the Magyars. The emigration is almost entirely to America, as in the neighbouring districts of Magyaria and Slovakia.

*Internal Migration.*—As in Croatia-Slavonia, the balance between migration inwards and outwards from and to other parts of Hungary indicates a slight excess of inward migration. These migrants are probably Magyars; and their numbers partly account for the more rapid increase of the Magyar population in comparison with the Ruthenian population, despite a lower rate of natural increase and a higher rate of emigration.

During the decade 1901–10 the net result amounted to an increase of the population of 13 per cent.; the natural increase (excess of births over deaths) was 16·6 per cent.; there was an estimated net emigration of 4·5 per cent. and a net gain by migration inwards from other parts of Hungary of 0·9 per cent.

<sup>1</sup> Mainly German Jews.



## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1370. Louis the Great of Hungary becomes King of Poland, Galicia, and Lodomeria.
- 1382. Marriage of Louis's daughter with Ladislas II of Poland. Halicz transferred from Hungary to Poland.
- 1569. Union of Lublin : Poland and Lithuania joined.
- 1596. Synod of Brest Litovsk : Union of Churches.
- 1772. First Partition of Poland : Halicz and Lodomeria go to Austria.
- 1776. The Bukovina ceded to Austria by Turkey.
- 1786. Part of the Bukovina assigned to Galicia.
- 1796. Third Partition of Poland.
- 1810. East Galicia, including Tarnopol, ceded to Russia.
- 1815. Treaty of Vienna : East Galicia (and Tarnopol) recovered by Austria.
- 1846. Polish Rising in Galicia : Ruthenian peasants help Austria. Decree abolishing most of remaining feudal dues.
- 1848. Revolutions in Austria.
- 1849. The Bukovina made a separate Crown land.
- 1854. Further land reforms in Galicia.
- 1861. Province of Galicia granted greater autonomy than any other part of Austria.
- 1862. Decree requiring West Galician officials to know Ruthenian language.
- 1867. Ruthenian agrarian risings against Polish landlords.

### (1) ORIGINS

THE Ruthenes are a people who are to be found in the eastern part of Austrian Poland (which constitutes the administrative province of Galicia), in the Bukovina, and in the northern part of the kingdom of Hungary. They form part of that branch of the Russian people which is sometimes called the Little

Russian, and sometimes, especially recently, the Ukrainian people.<sup>1</sup> Indeed, the name Ruthenes is often used to describe all the Little Russians, whether settled in Russia, Hungary, the Bukovina, or Austrian Poland. The term Ruthenes will, however, in these pages be used in the narrower sense of Little Russians who are citizens of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy.<sup>2</sup> The bulk of the Galician Ruthenes extend eastward from the San river until they join their Little Russian brethren at the Russian border. In that area they form the majority of the population, but there are considerable Polish minorities in certain districts, and the city of Lemberg constitutes a Polish island in an otherwise Ruthenian district. In the Bukovina the Ruthenian districts are interwoven to a great extent with those inhabited by Vlachs (Rumanians). Czernowitz, their capital, has a large German element.

The Hungarian Ruthenes are settled on the southern slopes of the Carpathians in the counties of Sáros, Zemplén, Ung, Bereg, Ugocsa, and Máramaros; and in their westerly settlements they adjoin the Slovaks, by whom they have been partly absorbed. The Ruthenes have never at any time been united under a single government, either of a foreign or a native Power.

The Ruthenes are essentially a Russian people, and speak a language which does not differ greatly from the various dialects spoken by the other Little Russians, numbering some thirty millions, who constitute the bulk of the population of southern Russia.

Their origin is, like that of most of the Slav races, somewhat obscure; but by the tenth century the Ruthenian tribes are found both north and south of the Carpathian Range, in a country which came to be known as Red Russia, where they were ruled by a number of independent princes. The most important

<sup>1</sup> The application of the word Ukrainian to the whole Little Russian people is quite modern. The word 'Ukraina' means a border district; thus there were several Ukraines, e. g. Vitebsk, White Russia, Smolensk, &c.

<sup>2</sup> The Ruthenes are sometimes called Russniaks.

of these States were the kingdoms of Halicz and of Lodomeria or Vladimir.

These principalities soon became a battle-ground between the Hungarians and the Poles. In the eleventh century Bela of Hungary, who had taken possession of the kingdom of Halicz, was expelled by the Ruthenes with the help of the Poles; and Halicz and Lodomeria were united under a native prince, Roman, until his death in 1205. His son Daniel succeeded to Lodomeria, but Halicz was seized by Koloman of Hungary, who was later recognized as overlord by Daniel. To this period also belongs the beginning of the long struggle between the Eastern and Western Churches for the Ruthenian people, which continues to the present time.

## (2) THE RIVAL CHURCHES

When the Ruthenian tribes were originally converted to Christianity they became adherents of the Orthodox Church, but when, about 1240, the Mongol invasion was threatening to overwhelm the Ruthenian principalities, King Daniel appealed to Pope Innocent IV for help. This was promised in return for submission to the Papacy, and Daniel accordingly accepted the crown of Halicz at the hands of the Papal Legate; but, finding that his interests were not assisted by papal influence to the extent which he had expected, he subsequently reverted to the Orthodox Church, of which his people had remained adherents.

In 1340 the line of native princes died out, and Casimir III, King of Poland, incorporated Halicz and Lemberg (Lwov) in his dominions. In 1370 these passed to Louis the Great of Hungary, who became King of Poland in accordance with treaties previously made. In 1382 Halicz, which had been treated as definitely belonging to the crown of Hungary, was, on the marriage of the daughter of Louis the Great to Ladislas II of Poland, assigned once more to that State. Henceforward only those Ruthenes who lived on the

south-western side of the Carpathian range remained under the Hungarian crown.

The Poles had always been adherents of the Western Church; and great efforts were made to promote a union between the Greek and Roman Churches in the Polish dominions. This union was at length brought about by the Synod of Brest-Litovsk in 1596; and a Ruthenian Uniat Church was created, though the union was not quite complete till the dioceses of Lemberg and Lutzk, after a long and bitter struggle, submitted in 1700 and 1702. The union was largely the work of the Jesuit Order, and was especially due to Skarza, one of its most able members. The Uniat Church thus created recognizes the papal supremacy, though the Greek rite is retained, Old Slavonic remains the liturgical language, and the secular clergy are required to marry. This union affected the Ruthenes and the Little Russians under the Polish crown; and accordingly its influence extended for a time into the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, which by the Union of Lublin (1569) had been joined to Poland, but which subsequently became part of the Russian Empire. At the present day, however, this Uniat Church only survives among the Ruthenes of Austria-Hungary; in Russia it suffered severe persecution, especially under Catherine II and Nicholas I, and finally, in 1875, the Polish diocese of Chołm (Chełm), the last stronghold of the Uniats, was incorporated in the Russian Orthodox Church.

The compromise which created the Uniat Church has always been disapproved by many Roman Catholics. Constant efforts have been made to whittle down at any rate the outward differences between the Greek and the Latin rituals. The Orthodox Church, on the other hand, never ceased to oppose the union; and one of the first acts of the victorious Russians during their temporary occupation of Galicia in the war, was the establishment there of Orthodox Churches wherever possible.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See the interesting judgement of Lord Macnaghten in the case of *Zacklynski v. Polustrie*. Law Reports, 1908: Appeal Cases, p. 65.



## (3) AUSTRIAN RULE

By the First Partition of Poland (1772) the ancient kingdoms of Halicz and Lodomeria fell to the share of Austria; and in 1776 the Bukovina, which adjoins Halicz, was ceded to Austria by Turkey, and with it a large population of Ruthenes, who inhabited one corner of that province, and were adherents of the Orthodox Church. Thus, by 1776, all the Ruthenes of Halicz, Lodomeria, the Bukovina, and northern Hungary were under the Habsburg rule.

For the Ruthenes the change of rulers was a great gain. Joseph II showed no hostility to them; on the contrary, he encouraged their language. A Ruthenian Institute was created by him at Lemberg in 1787 for training the Ruthenian Uniat clergy, and continued to exist till 1804. The transfer from Poland to Austria not only saved the Ruthenian Uniat Church from extinction, but enabled the people to develop its national consciousness under very favourable conditions. It became the settled policy of Austrian statesmen to encourage the Ruthenian movement, partly as a means of checking the Galician Poles, and later with the further object of creating a national nucleus to which they hoped in time to attract the Little Russian subjects of the Russian Empire.

The history of the Ruthenes of the Bukovina and Galicia in the nineteenth century will be found in the Handbooks (Nos. 5 and 53 of this series) which deal with those regions. The Hungarian Ruthenes can hardly be said in this period to have had a history.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) RELIGIOUS

PRACTICALLY all the Ruthenes of Hungary belong to the Uniat Church. National feeling, however, is possibly stronger than sectarian ; an instance is quoted in which a secession to the Orthodox Church was brought about by the Magyarizing tendencies of a Uniat parish priest.<sup>1</sup>

#### (2) POLITICAL

The Ruthenes did not form a separate element in the Hungarian State. The eight counties which they inhabit were assigned to two of the seven administrative areas into which Hungary, including Transylvania, was divided. Owing to the restricted franchise, they were, in common with the rest of the Hungarian proletariat, excluded from representation in the Hungarian Parliament and in local government.

#### (3) EDUCATIONAL

The Ruthenes are backward educationally, and the percentage of illiteracy is high.

According to the statistics of the year 1911-12, there were in all 61,742 Ruthene children receiving elementary instruction—45,189 in the ordinary day-schools, and 16,553 in continuation and 'wirtschaftlich' schools. Of this total 4,133 attended schools (61 in number) in which Ruthenian was the language of instruction. Of these schools 57 had only one teacher. There were no secondary schools in which Ruthenian was the language of instruction.

<sup>1</sup> R. W. Seton-Watson, *Racial Problems in Hungary*, p. 322.

The number of Ruthene pupils in the higher elementary schools was only 96, and in the commercial and technical schools there were none.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

### *Popular Opinion and National Sentiment*

As regards the Ruthenes of Galicia, it has been noted in dealing with their political history that the interaction of racial and religious influences, the development of the Ukraine movement, and the encouragement given to that movement by both Austria and Russia from different motives, have all had their effect in shaping Ruthenian national sentiment.

The position of the Ruthenes in the Bukovina has been treated elsewhere (Handbook, No. 5). The Hungarian Ruthenes are perhaps the most backward ; they are for the most part very poor, living in log cabins without chimneys, and are inclined, it is said, to drink to excess. Changes of land tenure introduced on the liberation of the serfs in 1848, by which cash payment was substituted for payment in kind, and common pastures and forest lands became the private property of the landlords, partly account for their impoverishment. Their geographical position makes it difficult to suggest any way in which they could be politically united with the Ruthenes of Galicia, since the Carpathians form a very serious natural obstacle to such a combination.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) *Roads*

As 90 per cent. of the population of Ruthenia depends on agriculture for a livelihood, and other industries are accordingly little developed, the demands on road and rail transport are not great. The main road system is simple, being constituted by the highway from Kassa (Kaschau), in the county of Abauj-Torna, to Máramaros-Sziget, the chief town in Ruthenia, with its branches east and west. This road, which is scheduled as first-class, passes through Ungvár in the county of Ung to Munkács in the Ruthenian county of Bereg, where it turns south to Beregszász and follows the valley of the Tisza through Nagy-Szöllös, the chief place in Ugocsa, and Huszt in Máramaros, to Máramaros-Sziget. From Munkács a road leads north-eastwards by the valley of the Latorcza and the Vereczke Pass into Galicia, while a second-class road goes westwards through Csap. From Huszt a second-class road follows the valley of the Nagy-Ag through Okörmező and crosses into Galicia. There is a more direct route from Munkács to Máramaros-Sziget, which crosses the higher land on the eastern fringe of the Ugocsa plain and joins the main road above Huszt. About half-way there is a connexion with Beregszász, which continues westwards from that town to the bank of the Tisza. From Máramaros-Sziget a good road, continuing the highway from Kassa, runs by the Tisza, through Nagy-Bocskó and Körösmező, to enter Galicia through the Delatyn or Jablonica Pass. The total length of this State road, from Kassa to Jablonica in Galicia, is 373·90 km., of which there are in Bereg 62·72 km., in Ugocsa 35·07 km., and in Mára-



maros 151·83 km. The Bukovina is reached by the road from Máramaros-Sziget to Kirlibaba, 107·70 km. long, which passes through Felső-Visó and Borsa. Another road, 62 km. in length, goes south-west from Máramaros-Sziget to Nagy-Bánya.

There are in all 4,714 km. of roads ; of these 640 km. are State roads, 875 km. municipal, 997 km. communal, and 14 km. in connection with railways. The remaining 2,188 km. are simply the ordinary communal paths and tracks. There are, on an average, 17 km. of road (State, municipal, or communal) to 100 sq. km., and 36·6 km. to 10,000 inhabitants. The corresponding figures for Hungary as a whole are 29·4 km. and 45 km., and for Transylvania 24·1 km. and 50·9 km.

### (b) *Rivers*

The Tisza flows through or skirts Ruthenian territory for 253 km. (about 150 miles) and is navigable by barges and rafts for 193 km., by river steamers for 70 km. It becomes navigable for barges and rafts at Nagy-Bocskó, about 20 miles west of the Galician frontier, and for river steamers at Tisza-Ujlak, remaining navigable for the heavier craft until it joins the Danube. The distance to the Danube from Nagy-Bocskó is officially returned as 884 km., and from Tisza-Ujlak as 760·9 km. There are various small tributaries of no particular value as waterways.

### (c) *Railways*

In 1913 the total length of the railways in Ruthenia was 588·8 km., an average of 4 km. of line to 100 sq. km. and 8·6 km. to 10,000 inhabitants. The proportions for Hungary as a whole were 6·6 km. and 10·1 km. respectively. In 1912, when the railways in Ruthenia totalled 529 km., the State owned 355·2 km., and worked 24·4 km., part of the Máramaros-Sziget lines to salt-works, on behalf of private companies ; the remainder, including the narrow-gauge salt-works lines, were owned and operated by private companies. The lines are all normally of single track.

Two railway lines enter Ruthenia from the west, joining at Királyháza, and two cross the Carpathians from Ruthenia into Galicia, ascending respectively the valleys of the Latorcza and the Tisza.

The northern line from the west leaves the Budapest-Lemberg railway at Sátoralja-Ujhely and enters Ruthenia about 10 km. east of the junction at Csap. At Bányú it divides. One branch goes to Munkács (26 km.), thereafter continuing, by the Latorcza valley, through Szolyva and Volócz, and across the Carpathians to Lawoczne and Stryj in Galicia. The other branch from Bányú crosses the marshy levels of the river Szernye, a tributary of the Latorcza, to Beregszász and to Tisza-Ujlak on the Tisza, whence it runs through Nagy-Szöllös to Királyháza, to join the other line from the west. At Beregszász a narrow-gauge line goes by the River Borsava to Dolha and Kovácsrét, having a branch from Komlóskiterő to Nagy-Szöllös.

The second line from the west affords communication between Budapest and Ruthenia via Szolnok and Debreczen. After the junction at Királyháza, the main line runs near the Tisza, through Huszt and Taraczköz, to Máramaros-Sziget. From Taraczköz a narrow-gauge line goes to Kobilaerdő. From Máramaros-Sziget a short branch runs northward to Aknaszlatina (7 km.), and narrow-gauge lines go southward to the salt districts at Aknasugatag (23 km.) and Rónaszék (22 km.). The main line continues from Máramaros-Sziget up the valley of the Tisza to Visóvölgy and Körösmező, where it meets a Galician line. From Nagy-Bocskó a branch runs to Kis-Bocskó and the chalybeate baths of Kabolapolyana; and at Visóvölgy there is a branch southwards to Borsa, which is on the high road to Kirlibaba in the Bukovina.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

There were in 1912, 108 post-offices, 85 telegraph offices, and 672 telephone stations. These figures represent about 17 post-offices, 14 telegraph offices, and

100 telephone stations to 100,000 inhabitants, as compared with 21, 23, and 356 respectively for Hungary as a whole. As the population of Ruthenia is almost wholly agricultural, its needs are probably well served.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR: EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION

Economically the Ruthene is hampered by generations of want and illiteracy. He is conservative in his customs and poverty-stricken, while three persons out of four above the age of six are illiterate. Nevertheless, when removed to such a country as Canada, the Ruthene becomes a successful farmer. Males and females are almost equal in number in the Ruthenian rural communities; and there is a high proportion, namely 53 per cent., of adults of the working ages between 15 and 60. The Germans in the country, as in other parts of Hungary, are characterized by careful husbandry and great economic capacity.

The rate of emigration is high, as it generally is in the eastern districts of Hungary. In the decade before the war it averaged 3,000 a year; in 1913 the number of emigrants was 4,295, almost equally divided between men and women, and equivalent to more than 6 per 1,000 of the whole population. This rate, however, was greatly exceeded in the county of Ugocsa, which contributed 1,527 emigrants, or 16.1 per thousand of its inhabitants. Bereg, a larger county, supplied 1,847, but this figure represented only 7.6 per thousand of its population. The emigrants from Máramaros, the largest and most prosperous county, numbered only 921, or 2.5 per thousand. Of the races represented among the emigrants, the Magyars, of whom there were 2,231, were the most numerous, while the Ruthenes came next with 1,364. There were 391 Germans, 286 Rumanians, and a few of other stocks. About 96 per cent. of the emigrants went to America. The returning emigrants in the same year



numbered only 449, 185 going to Bereg, 170 to Máramaros, and 94 to Ugocsa; all came from America. Of immigrants proper there were 101, almost entirely from Austrian territories and including 52 Poles.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

### (a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Eastern Ruthenia rises to the Carpathians, where, in narrow valleys with torrential streams and steep heavily-wooded sides, the native wrings a scanty subsistence from tiny patches of ground. On the level uplands are Alpine meadows with a scanty soil. Western Bereg and Ugocsa fringe the Alföld, whose typical *loess* and alluvial soil characterize these districts. On the whole, the productiveness of Ruthenian land is poor, the average yield of cereals per hectare being only from one-half to two-thirds of the corresponding average for Hungary as a whole. Of the three Ruthenian counties, Máramaros has the largest production of cereals per hectare, a distinction partly due to the fact that it has shown the most favour to modern appliances and methods of cultivation, the Ruthenian peasant being in general very conservative in his methods of agriculture.

In Ruthenia, as usually in Hungary, particularly in the eastern portion, *maize* is the leading crop. Ugocsa, however, produces a slight excess of both *wheat* and *oats*, the yield of that small county in 1913 being 53,057 quintals of maize to 55,088 of wheat and 53,681 of oats. Máramaros in the same year raised 242,056 quintals of maize, only 14,133 of wheat, and 180,046 of oats, little more than 5 per cent. of the cultivated surface of that county being under wheat, as compared with 45 per cent. under maize. Bereg produced 124,328 quintals of maize, 104,513 of wheat, and 123,780 of oats. These are the chief cereal crops, *rye* and *barley* coming next in order; the Hungarian peasant generally has no affection for rye, and the



relative production of Ruthenia is less than that of the neighbouring district of Transylvania. The figures of 1913 for all these crops in the three counties, with the production per hectare, and similar details for Hungary as a whole, are given in the following tables :

TABLE I.—PRODUCTION OF CEREALS (IN QUINTALS)

<i>County.</i>	<i>Maize.</i>	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Rye.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>
Bereg . . .	124,328	104,513	123,780	50,444	20,851
Máramaros . . .	242,056	14,133	180,046	18,140	14,289
Ugocsa . . .	53,057	55,088	53,681	23,292	4,937
Total for Ruthenia	419,441	173,734	357,507	91,876	40,077
Total for Hungary .	53,603,084	45,545,384	15,440,041	14,222,487	18,059,678

TABLE II.—PRODUCTION IN QUINTALS PER HECTARE

<i>County.</i>	<i>Maize.</i>	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Rye.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>
Bereg . . .	7.5	8.1	7.4	8.4	8.8
Máramaros . . .	9.1	8.4	9.5	10.0	9.6
Ugocsa . . .	5.0	7.1	7.8	8.1	8.4
Average for Ruthenia .	7.2	7.8	8.2	8.8	8.9
Average for Hungary .	18.4	13.2	12.1	12.2	14.7

Of *potatoes* and *beetroot* the production is in no way remarkable. Máramaros, indeed, grows no beetroot, and Ugocsa but little. The 1913 figures are as follows :

TABLE III

<i>County.</i>	<i>Total production in quintals.</i>		<i>Production in quintals per hectare.</i>	
	<i>Potatoes.</i>	<i>Beetroot.</i>	<i>Potatoes.</i>	<i>Beetroot.</i>
Bereg . . .	546,505	13,250	50.0	125.1
Máramaros . . .	566,640	—	36.7	—
Ugocsa . . .	49,760	1,260	31.3	121.6
Total and average for Ruthenia .	1,162,905	14,510	39.3	123.3
Total and average for Hungary .	54,506,086	48,650,428	78.9	267.2

There is a small production of *wine*, of which the quality is exceptionally high. The Ruthenian vineyards cover 3,217 hectares, and in 1913 yielded 26,428 hectolitres of wine, valued at 9,445,000 kr. This represented 0.59 per cent. of the total production of Hungary, and 6.1 per cent. of its total value.

As in other parts of Hungary, the production of *tobacco* has declined. While the number of cultivators, 107, remained the same in 1913 as in 1909, and the area planted increased from 1,375 hectares to 1,412, the quantity produced fell from 15,473 quintals to 5,728 quintals, and its value from 642,150 kr. to 267,044 kr. In 1909 the Ruthenian crop represented 2·4 per cent. of the quantity of the Hungarian crop and 2·3 per cent. of the value. The percentages for 1913 were respectively 2·4 and 1·3 per cent. There is a tobacco factory at Munkács, which in 1912 employed 837 workers, 722 of whom were women.

The *honey* produced in 1912 amounted to 1,249 quintals, and the *wax* to 142 quintals, the value of these products being 153,300 kr.

According to the last census, the following *animals* belonged to Ruthenia in 1911 :

Horned cattle	. 256,044	Sheep	. . . 241,169
Horses	. . 42,793	Goats	. . . 26,621
Donkeys	. . 150	Pigs	. . . 88,706
Mules	. . 14		

These figures show little variation from those given in the previous return (1895).

### (b) Forestry

As Ruthenia contains part of the Carpathians, there is a fair amount of land under forest, viz. 698,740 hectares, or 7·6 per cent. of the forest land of all Hungary. Of this, 520,123 hectares are under scientific State control. Oaks cover 65,039 hectares and resinous trees 219,078 hectares, other trees being all grouped under the head of 'beech' in the official statistics. The contributions of Ruthenia to the total Hungarian production of oak and resinous timber are respectively 2·8 per cent. and 11·2 per cent. Máramaros, as might be expected from its position on the slopes of the Carpathians, is the most heavily-wooded county, 54 per cent. of its surface being under forest, while it

comes second among the counties of Hungary in respect of the area under resinous trees. In Bereg the forests consist mostly of oak and 'beech'.

### (3) MINERALS

The mineral output of Ruthenia is not great, and comes mainly from Máramaros. There are gold and silver mines of minor importance in that county at Budfalu, Tótos-Zseramp, and Borsbánya, and with the gold and silver are associated ores of copper, lead, antimony, and zinc. The Máramaros Metal-Mining Co. (*Máramarosi Fémányatársulat*) in Tótosbánya had in 1913 the following output from their workings at Budfalu :

	<i>Ore in quintals.</i>	<i>Value in kronen.</i>
Lead . . .	195.20	2972.16
Zinc . . .	468.78	2133.22
Copper . . .	130.50	723.36
	<i>Grammes.</i>	
Silver . . .	4255.00	404.23
Gold . . .	48.00	157.48

Iron ore occurs in the western part of Ruthenia in adjoining portions of the three counties. At Bilke and Szajkófatu in Bereg, and at Kisrakócz in Ugocsa, are the mines of the Dolha-Rókamező Co., which has iron-works at Dolha, and a forge at Rókamező, where it treats 25,000 quintals of iron ore yearly. The same company leases the iron mines at Tökés, Ilonca, Nagyábránka, and Szalkófalva, and has iron-works at Hátmeg. The furnace at Hátmeg, with charcoal fuel, used to provide 8,000 quintals of pig-iron yearly. There is an iron and manganese mine at Felső-Visó in Máramaros, with an annual production of 210 quintals of manganese and iron ore. Aluminium is worked at Beregszász. Pit-coal of excellent quality occurs at many places in Máramaros, but nowhere, apparently, in seams thick enough to repay working. Lignite is mined on a small scale at Ilonca in Bereg. Good lignite is also found in the hilly part of Ugocsa.

There is a trivial output of petroleum at Körösmező, in Máramaros. Oil and bitumen deposits also occur in the same county at Izaszacsal, Szelistye, and Dragomérfalva, and are worked by the Magyar Kárpáti Petroleum Joint-Stock Co. At many places in the hill district of Ugocsa china-clay is found, as well as grey and red clay excellently suited for earthenware.

By far the most important mineral of Ruthenia is salt. The beds form part of the enormous deposits that stretch from Transylvania into Galicia. Almost all the salt produced in Hungary comes from either Transylvania or Ruthenia. In 1912, for example, the output of Transylvania was 1,599,176 quintals, valued at 17,696,000 kr., that of Ruthenia 1,050,716 quintals, valued at 19,121,000 kr., and that of the rest of Hungary only 59,402 quintals, valued at 1,180,000 kr. In proportion to its size, Ruthenia is thus the greatest salt-producing district in Hungary, supplying nearly 39 per cent. of the total output and more than half its value. The salt-mines are all in the neighbourhood of Máramaros-Sziget, with which they are connected by rail (see p. 14). Aknaszlatina is the official headquarters of the industry. The number of persons employed at the salt-works in 1912 was 1,261, of whom 966 were men and 295 boys. The salt-workers in Hungary, as a whole, numbered 2,850. The output of the different Ruthenian centres in 1912, with the value, is shown in the following table :

	<i>Output in quintals.</i>			<i>Value in kronen.</i>
	<i>Rock-salt.</i>	<i>Industrial Salt.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	
Aknaszlatina . . .	385,067	155,744	540,811	10,427,000
Aknasugatag . . .	215,152	42,138	257,290	4,246,000
Rónaszék . . .	218,816	33,799	252,615	4,448,000
Totals . . .	819,035	231,681	1,050,716	19,121,000

In Hungary, salt-mining is exclusively conducted by the State, and the sale of salt is a State monopoly. The richness of the deposits is enormous, and for many years there has been a steady increase in output.



#### (4) MANUFACTURE

As a manufacturing district, Ruthenia is of no particular importance.

Dolha is the seat of the management of the Dolha-Rókamező Ironworks and Spade and Hoe Joint-Stock Co., which employs 236 workmen. There are some works which manufacture pottery and glass in the towns of Máramaros-Sziget, Beregszász, and Munkács.

#### (C) COMMERCE

##### *Towns*

The principal towns are Máramaros-Sziget (population, 21,370) and Munkács (population, 17,275), the latter being in the county of Bereg. Máramaros-Sziget among its industries possesses two big saw-mills, a factory for bent wood, and a straw-hat factory. The chief articles of trade are salt, wood, and leather, while the trade in cattle is considerable.

#### (D) FINANCE

##### *Banking*

In the three counties there are altogether 231 banks and credit institutions of various kinds, 79 being banks proper, savings-banks, and land banks, while 152 are mutual credit associations. The Austro-Hungarian Bank has branches at Munkács and Máramaros-Sziget, with one sub-office to each.

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#### MAPS

Hungarian Ruthenia is covered by four sheets (M. 34 Krakau, M. 35 Jitomir, L. 34 Buda-Pest, L. 35 Bucures'i; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' Map published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

See also special map, 'Hungary and Croatia-Slavonia : internal divisions,' issued by the War Office (G.S.G.S. 2917) in connexion with this series.

For Ethnography, see note on maps in *Austria, &c.* (No. 1 of this series), p. 28.

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